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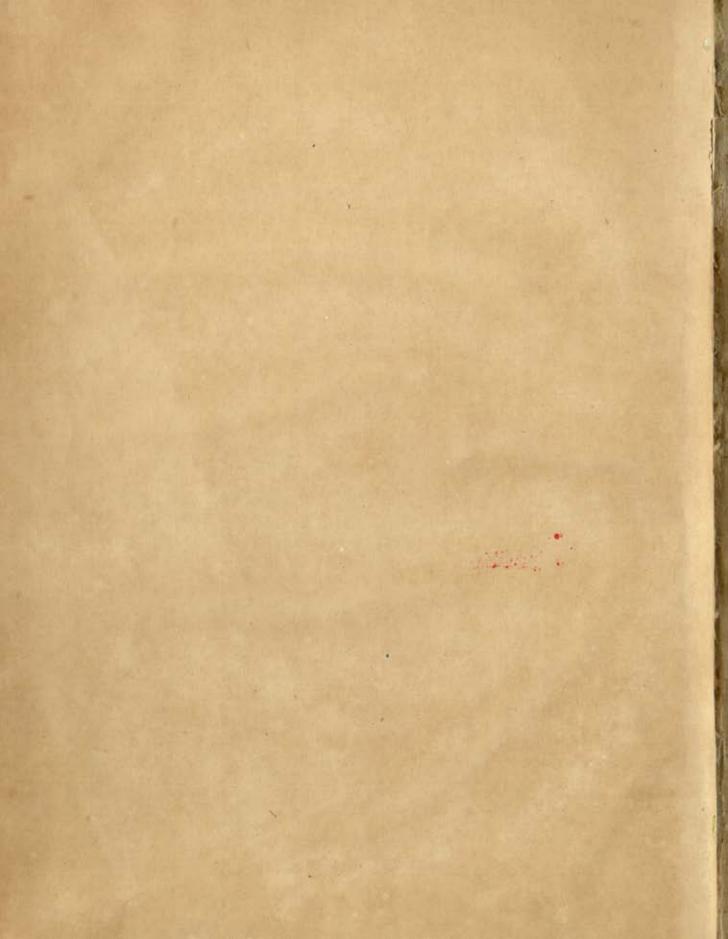
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ASIATICK RESEARCHES:

OR



TRANSACTIONS

OF THE

SOCIETY;

INSTITUTED IN BENGAL,

FOR ENQUIRING INTO THE

HISTORY AND ANTIQUITIES, THE ARTS, SCIENCES, AND LITERATURE,

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VOLUME THE EIGHTH.

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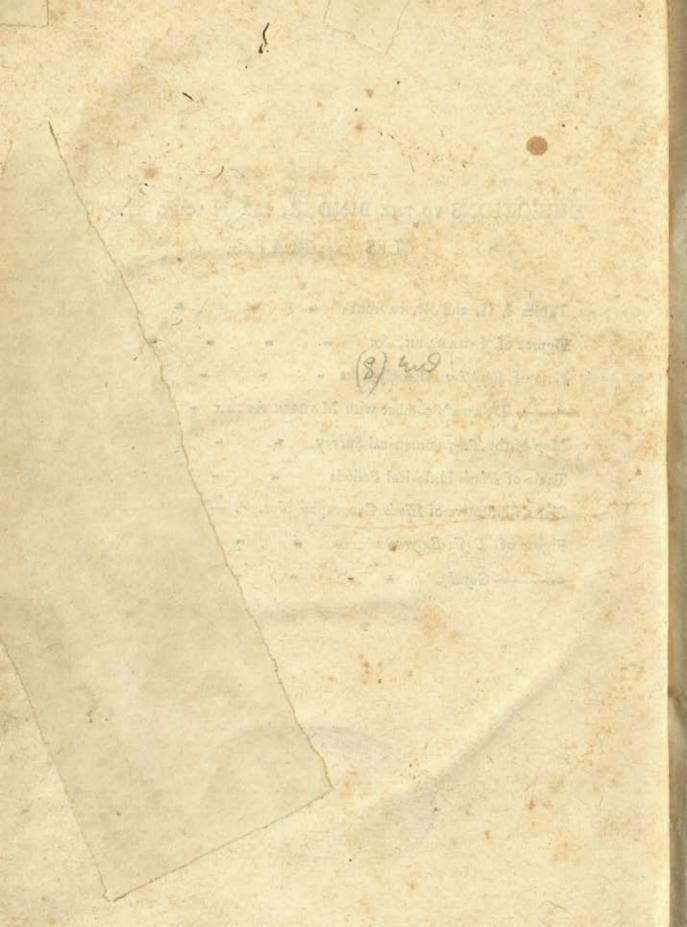


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TRANSACTIONS

OF THE

ASIATICK SOCIETY.

I.

OBSERVATIONS respecting the remarkable Effects of Sol-Lunar Influence in the Fevers of India; with the Scheme of an Astronomical Ephemeris for the purposes of Medicine and Meteorology.

By FRANCIS BALFOUR, Esq. M. D.*

WHILST the interesting and successful researches of the Asiatick Society are exciting the curiosity and expectation of the learned in every quarter of the world, it is natural for those who are prosecuting discoveries in medicine and meteorology to look towards India, for some information respecting the nature and peculiarities

A ..

^{*} Mr. Balfour is the author of the Paper in the Second Volume of the Afintick Refearches, entitled a As Treatife on the introduction of the Asabic into the Persian, and language of Hindustan."

of the climate in which we live. Possessing, as we do, the peculiar advantages of a tropical situation, with a more extensive field, and greater conveniency for making observations than any European nation ever enjoyed before, it is an expectation which they have reason to entertain, and which on that account, and many other considerations, we ought, if possible, to gratify.

ONE of the most striking and interesting peculiarities of this climate is the wonderful connection that substitute between the paroxysms of severs, and certain relative positions of the sun and moon; and as it is a peculiarity that leads to new ideas respecting the theory and treatment of the whole class of sebrile diseases, and suggests Desiderata for meteorological research; and therefore presents to the physician and philosopher, one of the most important phenomena in nature, I have chosen it for the subject of this paper.

I. Of the Number and Importance of the Diseases that belong to the Class of Fevers.

As the terms fevers, febrile diseases, or class of fevers, cannot convey to those who have not professionally or regularly applied themselves to the study of medicine, any just or adequate idea of the great extent and magnitude of this subject, I have thought it expedient to take this occasion to observe, for their information, that the class of severs or febrile diseases comprehends, not only the disorders that always receive the appellation of severs, but a very great number of others that are never distinguished by this name: although the sever which accompanies them, constitutes the very essence of the disease.

- 10 1'

Discases of this description, of which many are far more destructive to the human race than those expressly called severs, are most of them included in the following catalogue.

The plague, putrid fore-throats, epidemic catarrhs, dyfenteries, pleurifies, peripneumonies, cholics, cholera morbus, acute liver, the fmall-pox, meafles, eryfipelas, elephantiafis, rheumatifm, gout, tooth-achs, opthalmias, megrims, obstructions of the liver and spleen, diarrheas, consumptions, spitting of blood, and hæmorrhoids; many species of hypochondriafis, infanity, epilessy, tetanus and assimate the state of teething in children, all local inflammations, external and internal, accompanied with sever of any kind, and all fores and ulcers, especially of the legs in warm climates. In short all diseases attended with periodical exacerbations of sever however obscure, &c. &c.

With whatever fuccess, therefore, I may have acquitted myself in my researches respecting the class of severs, it will appear from this explanation, that the object, at least, cannot, with truth, be represented as unimportant and useless. It cannot be unimportant and useless to investigate the nature of a class of diseases, by which the whole of the human race is forely afflicted: and ultimately three-fourths of mankind are carried to the grave.

II. Of the effects of SOL-LUNAR INFLUENCE in FEVERS, denominated Continued, Remitting and Intermitting.

A collection of all the observations I have made on this subject.

would be much too voluminous for a place amongst the researches of the Society. For my present object, it will be sufficient to state, as briefly as possible, the general conclusions that I have been led to draw from a view of the whole; and they are those that follow.

1st. OF THE PAROXYSMS OF FEVERS.

In Bengal there is no room to doubt that the human frame is affected by the influence connected with the relative fituations of the fun and moon. In certain states of health and vigor, this influence has not power to shew itself by any obvious effects; and in such cases its existence is often not acknowledged. But in certain states of debility and disease it is able to manifest itself by exciting febrile paroxysms; and the propensity or aptitude of the constitution, to be affected with sebrile paroxysms in such cases, may be denominated the paroxysmal disposition.

FROM the great variety that appears in the violence and repetition of paroxysms in different cases at the same juncture of time, when the exciting power must act equally on all, it must be inferred, that the paroxysmal disposition exists in different cases in various degrees of propensity.

Ir appears also, from the history of severs, that there is a disposition in all of them, which gradually increases and advances to a state in which it becomes ripe, or prepared for that remarkable change which terminates in a solution of the sever; and is denominated a criss. This tendency in severs may be called the critical disposition; which dis-

tinguishes itself in different cases, and at different times by various degrees of maturity.

The conflitutions that prevail in different kinds of fever discover obvious peculiarities with respect to the progress and maturation of the critical disposition. But that which is most important, and most material for the object of the present explanation, is a peculiarity that shews itself in the critical disposition of the common typhus. In cases of this fever, which is that which prevails in crowded cities, and in jails, ships and hospitals in all countries at all seasons, and is by far the most common, it is well established by experience, that the server being once commenced, the paroxysms are very rarely disposed to cease in less than four days, and seldom so soon; and are not in general inclined to continue more than twenty-one.

The laws that regulate the progress and maturation of the critical disposition, in that constitution which prevails in remitting and intermitting fevers, which are generally attended with large secretions of bile,
and are the endemic sever of warm climates, have not been as yet
ascertained by any precise rules respecting their duration. But it appears to me that, whenever there are free discharges of bile, there
is always a greater tendency towards a crisis or solution of the sever,
than when there appears but little or none, which is generally the case
during the height of the typhus; and until some approach towards a
crisis either persect or impersect has taken place; and the peculiar
paroxysmal, as well as the critical disposition in the typhus and in remitting and intermitting severs, giving occasion to forms of different
type and duration, may perhaps be connected with different states of
the liver peculiar to each

2d. OF THE TYPES OF FEVERS.

OF PERFECT TYPES.

FEBRILE paroxyfms univerfally discover a tendency to appear and disappear in coincidence with those positions of the sun and moon that regulate the rising and falling of the tides.

The diurnal and nocturnal increase of sol-lunar power acting on constitutions, in which the propensity of the paroxysmal disposition is complete and perfect, produces paroxysms every twelve hours in coincidence with the periods of the tides *; and constitutes types, which on account of this regular coincidence, I have denominated perfect.

OF IMPERFECT TYPES.

THE diurnal and nocturnal increase of sol-lunar power acting on constitutions in which the propensity to paroxysm is incomplete or imperfect, has power only to produce paroxysms in coincidence with every second, third, or sourth period of the tides, or others more remote; constituting types, which on account of this irregular coincidence I have called imperfect.

By the discovery of this simple and universal principle, we are able to unfold the whole mystery of types; and to explain all the diversities that have appeared under the distinctions of continued, remitting, and intermitting severs. Fevers hitherto denominated continued severs, and supposed from the obscurity of their remissions to have none,

^{*} I express myself in this manner for the sake of brevity, meaning that the paroxysms occur in coincidence with the positions of the sun and moon that occasions the tides. The tides, it is well known, do not coincide with those exactly; but follow them a considerable time after.

are all of them to be confidered as nothing elfe than fevers of a perfect type, in which two daily remissions may always be discovered, by attending to the remissions of fol-lunar influence, especially those of the morning; and severs having paroxysins every twelve hours with obvious remissions, whether denominated continued or remitting severs, are also evidently severs of a perfect type.

Fevers in which the paroxysms do not succeed each other in twelve hours (and which have been hitherto denominated intermitting severs when the remissions were complete, and remitting severs when they were not) all belong to the class of imperfect types.

For the purpose of illustrating these explanations respecting types, I have constructed Table L.

3d. OF THE DURATIONS AND CRISES OF FEVERS.

OF THE DURATIONS AND CRISES OF FEVERS OF A PERFECT TYPE.

FEBRILE paroxysms show themselves more frequently during the period of the spring tides than at any other time, and as these advance become more violent and obstinate; and on the other hand, tend no less invariably to subside and terminate during the neaps.

By the concurrence of the remarkable and fudden remission in the power of fol-lunar influence at the commencement of the neaps with critical dispositions in a state of perfect maturity, all the different perfect

types, produced in the manner I have explained, are brought to a final termination or perfect criss; and are thus limited to fevers of different durations.

The operation of this law is explained in Table II, which exhibiting examples of the different durations of perfect types, with the manner in which they are formed, unfolds at one glance, the dark and once impenetrable fecret of crifis; and accounts for all the diversities that may appear in their duration at different times.

An application of these principles enables us to explain in a fimilar and confiftent manner the formation of crifis that have been called imperfect. It is obvious that whenever the remission in the power of follunar influence at the commencement of the neaps acting equally on all, produces in some cases perfect criss, and in others crises that are imperfect, that the latter must be referred to the immature and unprepared state of the critical disposition to concur completely in that event. And although perfect crifes owing to the cause which I now mention, do not always take place at fuch junctures, yet no fever, as far as my experience goes, ever passes the commencement of the neaps without some evident abatement or remission in the degree of its violence; or without exhibiting some evident approaches towards a folution or crisis; and they are approaches such as these, in which the critical disposition concurs only partially and incompletely with the remission of fol-lunar power, that conflitute those changes in the slate of fevers that have been hitherto denominated imperfect crifes.

This explanation refpecting the nature of imperfect crifis being premifed, I have now to observe, that although Table II, exhibit only fuch forms of perfect types as terminate by a final and perfect crifis on the commencement of the neaps, it will now be well understood, that all fevers do not terminate finally and completely at this juncture; but that in many cases, the crises being imperfect, the paroxysms continue to return for some time in a more moderate degree, and generally postponing with the periods of the tides, subside, and at last disappear gradually and imperceptibly. The imperfect crises of perfect types, such as these which I have just described, being less distinctly marked in their form, I have not attempted to represent them by any diagram.

OF THE DURATIONS AND CRISES OF EEVERS OF AN IMPERFECT TYPE.

For the same reason I have not attempted to reduce, to a synopsis or table, the durations and crises of imperfect types; and because I am perfectly satisfied that the same principles are equally applicable to explain the whole.

III. The preceding THEORY extended to the whole Class of FEBRILE DISEASES.

In profecuting this analysis, we have obtained the knowledge of three very important principles in the pathology of fevers.

1st. That the paroxysms of severs are produced by the action of fol-lunar influence.

2dly. That there is, however, a certain state of the human constitution, denominated the paraxysmal disposition, required to concur with

the exacerbations of fol-lunar power in exciting and reiterating paroxyfms, in fuch a manner as to form fevers.

adly. That in the course of the disease there takes place in the constitution a certain state, denominated the critical disposition, which tending gradually to maturity, at length concurs with certain remissions of sol-lunar power in producing a crisis; by which salutary change the tendency to paroxysm is diminished or removed, so as to bring severs to an end after certain intervals of time.

In my explanation of this theory, I have hitherto confined myfelf as much as possible to examples of the typhus, and of the endemic remitting and intermitting bilious fevers of this country; particularly those without local affection; and such therefore as are strictly denominated severs. I now mean to extend it to every disease that is distinguished by febrile paroxysms, returning in coincidence with the periods of increased sol-lunar power, whether with or without local affection; and as there is no disease of the numerous list detailed at the beginning of this paper, excepting the plague*, catarrhal severs, and one or two more, in which I have not myself distinctly observed the coincidence of concomitant sever with the exacerbations of sol-lunar influence; the whole of that catalogue, and many others, though not generally distinguished by the appellation of severs, are to be considered as nothing more than so many different modifications of sever; in which the peculiar constitution of each is variously af-

In feveral of the cases of the plague, recorded by Dr. PATRICK RUSSEL, the sebrile paroxysms returned obviously every twelve hours in coincidence with the periods of the tides; and his predecessor and relation, the author of the Natural History of Aleppo, says positively that the generality of fevers there, and indeed almost all acute diseases, are subject to exacerbations once or twice in twentyto four hours." Vide Dostor Millar's observations on the prevailing Diseases of Great Britain, page 203.

fected by the action of fol-lunar power; and in fuch a manner as to produce the great variety of febrile forms that daily appear.

The exacerbation and remission of febrile paroxysm in coincidence with the rising and falling of sol-lunar power constitutes the general and distinguishing character of sever or febrile disease; and although the lowest degree of this power acting on paroxysmal dispositions in a high state of propensity, may happen to produce febrile paroxysms at an unusual period, such instances, though apparently exceptions, are no argument against the truth or principles of the general law: but are consistent with it in every respect.

Combining therefore the operation of the principles we have obtained from this analysis, we are enabled to construct a theorem, which serves to explain in a new, but satisfactory manner, the whole class of sebrile diseases.

THEOREM.

The fluctuating force of fol-lunar influence coinciding and co-operating in all its various stages and degrees, with the various modifications of the paroxysmal disposition, excites febrile paroxysms to attack on all the days of the neaps and springs, and supports and reiterates them, according to various types, until the commencement of different neaps; at which junctures the maturity of the critical disposition happening to concur with the periodical decline of sol-lunar influence, these paroxysms then subside and come to a termination or criss: and thus form different successions of paroxysms constituting severs of various length or duration.

Ir has been observed, respecting the various forms of durations, that fome are apt to occur more frequently than others. To fearch for a folution of this question amidst the chaos of the incorrect and mutilated history that has been accumulated on the subject of fevers, would be unfatisfactory and ufelefs. It will be far more profitable to observe their course with attention in future, when the laws that directs it are explained and understood, and I have no doubt that any physician who will carefully attend to the diurnal and nocturnal returns of the tides, and will constantly hold before him the prevailing tendency of fevers to appear at the commencement, and during the period of the fprings; and on the other hand their prevailing tendency to fubfide and terminate at the commencement and during the period of the neaps; together with the observations that have been made respecting the propenfity of the paroxysmal, and the maturity of the critical disposition, will foon obtain more information respecting the phenomena of fevers; and be able to form more just and certain judgments and prognostics respecting every event, than if he were to study the history of medicine. as it is now written, for a thousand years. In short there is no revolution or change in the course of fevers that may not be explained by these general principles, in a manner that is confishent with the laws of the human conflitution, and those of the great system of revolving bodies, which unite together in producing them.

BEFORE I conclude this article, I must also recommend to every practitioner who wishes to emancipate himself from the beaten track, to attend carefully to the appearance of the urine; for I can affure them, from the experience of many years attentive observation, that there is to be observed, in the severs of India, a constant and regular sluctuation in the colour and consistence of the urine in severs. That is to say, regular

diurnal and feptenary changes in its character, coincident and correspondent with the exacerbations and remissions of fol-lunar influence.

The periodical fluctuation in the state and appearance of eruptions, sores, and ulcers in this country, being always connected with the periodical changes of a concomitant sever, an attention to these will be no less instructive than to those of the urine; and if the periodical changes of each were regularly and accurately delineated and expressed in colours with a pencil, by a judicious and careful observer, they would form a record in medicine and surgery of a new kind; which I have no doubt, would place the whole of this doctrine upon the basis of ocular demonstration; and afford to the most incredulous and inattentive perfect conviction of its truth.

IV. Deviations from the prevailing tendencies of Fevers during the periods of the Springs and Neaps.

ALTHOUGH the general theorem, which I have advanced in the preceding pages, describe the prevailing tendencies of severs during the springs and neaps, it is necessary to observe, that those tendencies are liable to frequent and remarkable deviations from the various stations that the moon may happen to occupy on her own orbit; by which her distance from the earth may be considerably increased or diminished; and consequently her power.

FROM observations lately made at the General Hospital at Calcutta by Mr. James Howison, Doctor John Campbell, and Doctor John Fullarron, it appeared that the moon during the period of her greatest

horizontal parallaxes had fufficient power to fuspend, in a very conspicuous manner, the common tendency of the neaps to produce a remission of sever. And when the greatest horizontal parallaxes happen to coincide with the power of fol-lunar influence during the springs, we may reasonably infer that the power of exciting and supporting paroxysms, must then be considerably raised above its usual force.

Besides the deviations that may arise from this cause, it is also reasonable to suppose, that the state of febrile paroxysms must be occasionally affected by every other change or perturbation of the moon's influence: but these are less remarkable, and have not been as yet ascertained by accurate observation.

V. Of the state of Fevers in India, during the Equinoc-

I AM now come to take notice of the remarkable appearances observed in severs about the vernal and autumnal equinoxes. On this subject I have received from others very little information; but I have not been inattentive myself to those periods; and can pronounce with considence, although my observations have not been recorded with regularity, that severs are apt to occur more frequently, and with greater violence about both of those periods, than during the intervals either of summer or winter.

From these observations I was induced many years ago to advance, that the power of sollunar influence was considerably greater during the equinoctial periods than during the intervals either before or after them. It has therefore lately afforded me confiderable satisfaction to discover in De La Lande's astronomy, that De La Place has determined, from a very large collection of observations made by De La Lande himself, that the tides at Brest, about the time of the equinoxes, rise at a medium two seet higher than at the time of the folstices. This discovery is agreeable to the general law of attraction; and it is not to be supposed that the influence of the sun and moon under the tropics, acts with a force inferior to that which produces this difference in the height of the tides on the northern shores of Europe.

How far fol-lunar influence affects the fevers of the higher latitudes of the globe, is a question that does not come within the scope of this inquiry. The annexed table, however, extracted from Dr. Currie, of Liverpool's medical reports on the effects of the water, &c. page 230, points so strongly to this subject; and is so immediately connected with the present article, that I could not resist the temptation of giving it a place; conceiving that it may become a stronger inducement to observation than any admonition or exhortation that I could offer.

DR. CURRIE's table was formed by him to shew the number of typhus severs admitted into the Liverpeol dispensary in the course of seventeen years; and the admissions in that space of time amounted to no less than 48,367.

The great majority of patients admitted in the months of the fpring and autumn, which I have denominated the equinoctial periods, com-

^{*} Aftronomie par Jerome Lu Francais La Lande, Edition Troisseme Revue in Augmentée, Tome

pared with those admitted in the months of summer and winter, which I have called the inter-equinoctial intervals, cannot fail to attract the notice of every observer.

WITHOUT attending to fractions, we obtain from the facts established in this record, the following statement of admissions.

of the Dra and moon under the troubes.

For the mean of the equinoctial period,	,980
For the mean of the inter-equinoctial intervals, 11	,232
For the common mean of those periods and intervals, 12	,091
For the rife of the equinoctial mean, above the common	
mean, 10-1 -10-10-10-10-10-10-10-10-10-10-10-10-10-	= 4
For the fall of the inter-equinoctial mean, below the	uni.
common mean, 1 859, fay 850	= 14
is its floority to this flatgeth; and is so immediately connected with	ing

Those facts expressed in other terms amount to these;

- 1st. That whilst the temperature of the season in the spring was passing from cold to hot the number of typhus severs rose about 1/4 above the common standard.
- passing from hot to cold, the number of typhus fevers rose in like manner about ; above the common standard.
- 3dly. That during the months of fummer, when the heat of the feafon is greatest, the number of typhus fevers fell beneath the common standard about ;—and
- 4thly. That during the months of winter, when the heat of the feafon is leaft, the number of typhus fevers fell in like manner below the common standard in the same propertion, about 14.

THAT the number of fevers should increase equally during the transition from cold to hot, as from hot to cold, and under the two opposite extremes of permanent heat and permanent cold, should equally diminish, are facts that are no doubt curious. At present, however, I mean only to suggest, that, if the theory of sol-lunar influence should ever be admitted in *Europe*, those phenomena, apparently so very repugnant, may all be reconciled and referred to one common cause, without involving the smallest inconsistency or contradiction.

VI. Testimonies respecting the effects of Sol-Lunar Influence in the Fevers of India.

As it is impossible on this occasion to detail at full length the various observations and arguments from which I have been led to adopt this theory, it is necessary to state, that it has not been taken up rashly; that it is now submitted to this Society after the observation and reslection of thirty years; and that it is confirmed, in its most essential points, by the concurring observations of a large body of respectable gentlemen, whose names are contained in the following list. And it is stattering to me to add, that Lord Teignmouth, who was then Governor General, conceiving that the correspondence of those gentlemen on this subject promised to be publicly useful, ordered my treatise, containing their letters, to be printed and circulated at the expense of government.

Besides establishing unquestionable evidence of the general influence of this law in Bengal, these testimonies serve also to correct a very erroneous notion advanced respecting sol-lunar influence by Doctor Lind,

by shewing that its effects in fevers are no less manifest at the distance of many hundred miles from the highest reach of the tides, than at Calcutta, and other parts of Bengal, to which the tides flow daily. The distances marked in the column, appropriated to that purpose, are very nearly the number of miles in a direct line between the places where the observations were made, and the utmost reach of the tides at the springs. Doctor Lind's theory made me anxious to ascertain these distances with precision; and the Military Surveyor General was so obliging as to direct it to be done at his office.

CORRESPONDENTS.	san India.	Stations.	Distance from high-water. Miles.
Lieutenant L. Hook,	10	Ramnagur, -	365
Lieutenant A. Black,	13	Sylhet,	150
Captain R. Ogle,	24	Cooch-Behar, -	270
Major James Princie,	24	Benares,	365
Lieutenant Robert Cumming,	14	Midnapore, -	58
Lieutenant S. SINCLAIR,	14	Ditto,	ditto,
Lieutenant T. Hamilton,	14	Ditto,	ditto,
Captain S. KNOWLES,	24		CH DA . M
Mr. WILLIAM CHAMBERS,	102610	Calcutta,	pric to and
Major Robert Bruce,	24	Cooch-Behar, -	270
Mr. James Ross, Affistant Surgeon,	11	Dinagepore, -	160
Mr. ADAM BURT, Affistant Surgeon,	13	The state of the state of	THE STATE OF
J. G. HENDERSON, Surgeon,	14	A STATE OF THE STA	
Lieutenant FREDK. MARSDEN,	. 14	Bencoolen,	Bl. I zed
Mr. J. J. VAUMOREL, Affiltant Surgeon,	GIT DU 3	uping the contra	S.Britishs
Mr. H. MAIR, Head Surgeon,	- 23		WELST TO
Captain BRADLEY, 7	24	Chunar,	370
Mr. CH. DESROUGH, Affiliant Surgeon	4		075

CORRESPONDENTS.	Refident	Stations.	Distance from high-water, Miles.
Captain George Wood,	23	Ramghur,	240
Mr. JAMES WILSON, Surgeon,	13	Moorshedabad,	58
Colonel George Deare,	25	Calcutta,	34 12
Captain RICHARD GRUEBER, = -	23	Rohilcund, -	66
Mr. John Gilchrist, Affistant Surgeon,	11	WHITE PRINTING	STANCEDIA
Major S. FARMER,	25	Midnapore, -	5
Captain J. RATTRAY,	24	Jellasore,	Right Strategies
Mr. CHAS. TODD, Affistant Surgeon,	11	Bauleah,	7
Mr. CHAS. CAMPBELL, Affiltant Surgeon,	4	Fort Marlbrough,	1 10 miles
Mr. P. Cochrane, Surgeon,	14		
Mr. W. BAILLIE, Affistant Surgeon,	13	esperimentality, st	CENTAL INC
Lieutenant JAMES PRICE,	12	Chunar,	37
Lieutenant John Towers,	12	Campore,	53
Lieutenant Robert Dee,	11	Chitterpore, -	30
Lieutenant Thos. BROUGHAN,	10	Juanpore,	40
Mr. W. DAVIDSON, Affiftant Surgeon, -	10	Sylhet,	15
Mr. John Corse,	11	Tipperah,	5
Doctor J. CAMPBELL, Affistant,	9	Calcutta,	and San
Doctor ALEXANDER CAMPBELL, Surgeon,	15	Ditto,	Muont
Mr. JOHN MILLER,	30	Ditto,	1951 110
Mr. W. F. GARDNER, Surgeon,	17	trever locarin m	And I shall
Mr. W. Boyd, Surgeon,	10	Buxar,	34
Mr. W. Allison, Affistant Surgeon,	3	Firston tell my	DAGO TOO
Major Dunn,	25	Berhampore, -	4
Captain N. MACLEOD,	25	Cooch-Behar, -	27
Mr. T. HENCKELL,	24	Jessore,	and singu
Mr. JAMES McDougal, Affistant Surgeon,	3	LOS CONTRACTOR OF THE PARTY OF	000 13/31
Mr. John Hannah,	.8	0.1	to loan
Dr. Robert Bruce, Surgeon,	16	Lucknow,	53

No.	Refudent in India.	Stations.	Distance from high-water. Miles.	
14	12	Liungthinis	11000	
-	12	Dacca,	CONTRACTOR OF THE	
	11	Calcutta,	on Impired	
-	17	Daeca,	Carrier II	
	13	Rungpore, -	The Late	
	12	the market free side	Man	
-	25	Ramgur,	the others in	
	6	Pettebeat, -	660	
	12	Affam,	to handle	
-	14		13 11 200	
-	13	Calcutta,	Anatomy is	
	12		FAMILY DIE	
-	6	Ditto,	Tumpairta	
-	25	Cooch Behar, -	270	
		25 - 12 - 14 - 13 - 12 - 6	2 Daeca,	

The information sent to me by those gentlemen, was all of it received in the space of a few months, in consequence of a circular letter, requesting observations on this subject, and on any side of the question, from those who might be inclined to give it. Several of those gentlemen I had never seen in my life; and with many I had the honor only of a slight acquaintance. Had I continued longer to collect testimonies, I am consident, that notwithstanding the distince and reluctance with which people commit themselves upon a topic of this kind, that I might have obtained in direct proof of sol-lunar influence, a much larger body of evidence than is to be found in any single record in direct proof of the tides of the sea.

THE order for printing and circulating my treatife on fol-lunar influ-

ence, along with my correspondence on this subject, at the expense of government, is contained in the following letter.

To Doctor FRANCIS BALFOUR.

PUB. DEPr.

SIR,

THE Governor General being always disposed to encourage the fervants of the Company, in instances of publications that promote science, or are calculated to do a general service, directs me to inform you, that the expense of your publication, entitled " a Treatise on Sol-lunar Insulation," will be defrayed by government.

You will therefore be pleafed to circulate copies of this work to the different parts of the country where you think it will be ufeful; and likewife transmit twenty copies to this office, to be forwarded to the Honorable Court of Directors.

CALCUTTA,

I am, Str, &c.

Council Chamber,

(Signed) C. SHAKESPEAR,

the 7th April, 1794.

Sub-Secretary.

To accumulate tellimonies of the remarkable effects of fol-lunar influence in *India* is now almost superfluous. In the western parts of *India* it is no less generally acknowledged than in *Bengal*: and I shall conclude this article with an extract from a letter which I received some months ago, from a gentleman high in the medical line at *Bombay*; and no less so in the opinion of the public. His name however I forbear to publish, not having previously asked for his permission.

" BOMBAY, 6th May, 1801.

[&]quot; THE influence of the moon on the human body, has been observed

" in this part of India by every medical practitioner. It is univerfally " acknowledged by the doctors of all colours, of all casts, and of all coun-" tries. The people are taught to believe it in their infancy; and as " they grow up, they acknowledge it from experience. I suppose that " in the northern latitudes this power of the moon is far less sensible " than in India; and perhaps less so in Bengal than in our neighbour-" hood. We here univerfally think that the flate of weakly and dif-" eafed bodies, is much influenced by the motions of the moon. Many " people know the very day on which their intermittents will make " their appearance; and every full and change increases the number " of the patients of every practitioner. It is no argument against this " influence, that difeafes appear during every day of the month. The " human body is subject to alterations from a thousand external cir-" cumstances, and from many affections of the mind. These lay the " foundation of disease at every period; but they do not overthrow the " evidence of lunar influence; although they are apt to mislead with " regard to effects that depend on that alone. That the human body is affected in a remarkable manner by the changes of the moon, I am " perfectly convinced, although I cannot conftantly pretend to fee the " operation of the general law; nor to account at all times for its per-" turbation; and agree in thinking that an attention to the power of " the moon is highly necessary to the medical practitioner in India *."

^{*} Having neglected to apply to the author of this letter for his permission to give his name to the public; and being very unwilling to deprive the doctrine of lunar influence of the support, which it cannot fail to derive from such an evidence; I will now venture to discover, that he is no other than Doctor Helenus Scott, of Bombay. From the information of Doctor Hutton, who resided many years as Surgeon at Penang; and of Mr. James Lumsdaine, Surgeon for a number of years at Fort Marlbro; I have now, also, the satisfaction to know, that sollunar influence shews its effects in a very conspicuous manner in the prevailing diseases of those Islands; and that an attention to its laws, is of great importance on conducting their cure,

VII. Of Securing and Extending our knowledge of Sol-Lunar Influence.

As those discoveries regarding the effects of fol-lunar influence lead unavoidably to new ideas respecting the nature and cure of severs, it has become an object of real importance: first, to secure the knowledge we have already obtained of this principle; that it may not succumb to any illiberal attempt to suppress or smother it, by representing it as insignificant and useless; or by ascribing to it, the wild and groundless delusions of astrology; secondly, to render the road to suture observation and surther discovery more easy and accessible, by removing the almost unsurmountable obstacles that present themselves, in the intricacy and labor of astronomical investigations; and thirdly, to render our knowledge of it so precise and well defined, that it may assume the form and attributes of real science, by surnishing precepts for the purpose of applying it to the improvement of useful arts.

1st. To place this theory on a firm and secure foundation, I shall follow the example of the learned Abbe Mann, in his observations on the flux and reflux of the atmosphere*: and shall assume it as a principle requiring no further demonstration than what it has already received from astronomy, that the influence of that attraction, which regulates the motions of the planetary system, is continually and without ceasing exerting itself, in a proportionable degree, on every particle of this globe; and that it cannot be otherwise.

The existence of follunar influence being demonstrated by astronomy, its action on the human frame is no longer a matter of doubt;

^{*} The Philosophical Magazine, Vol. V, page 105.

and the only question that we have to consider is, not whether that power does actually exist, but whether it manifests itself by the signs of any obvious effect or change in the human constitution.

With respect to this important question, I shall content myself with stating in a very sew words, that all the observations I have made myself, together with those that have been communicated by other gentlemen, concur to prove, not merely that sol-lunar influence manifelts itself by evident effects upon the human constitution, but that the attacks, exacerbations, remissions, postponings, and relapses, of the paroxysms of severs, which comprehend the whole of the evidence that is necessary to constitute a complete demonstration, are, in a wonderful manner, coincident in time, and correspondent in degree, with the periodical changes that take place in the power of sol-lunar attraction. To reject, therefore, those accumulated proofs of its actual operation and efficiency, is to violate the principles and rules, by which we infer the existence of a connection or cause, in every question of philosophy, or common occurrence of life.

The proof of regular changes in the atmosphere corresponding with the revolutions of lunar attraction, being now established by the discovery of a regular diurnal, and a septenary flux and reflux in the mercury of the barometer, coincident with the diurnal and septenary revolutions of the same power, the theory of sol-lunar influence in severs receives from this event all the support that can be derived from a fair analogy: and it may be inferred with reason, that changes such as these in the element in which we breathe and move, are not likely to take place without corresponding perturbations in the human frame.

The existence of a diurnal flux and reflux in the mercury of the barometer, is now sufficiently established by the observations of Father Boudier, * at Chandernagore; of Mr. Trail, Mr. Farquhar, and Colonel Peirce, at Calcutta; and those which appear in my treatise, on the barometer, inserted in the fourth volume of the Asiatick Researches; and on the Coast of Coromandel, by the observations of Doctor Roxburght. On the other side of the globe, they have been observed in South America, and the West Indies; and also at different places in Europes.

The proofs of a feptenary flux and reflux, in the mercury of the barometer, is confirmed by the observations of Mr. Toaldo, Father. Cotte, and others; but still more pointedly by those lately made in England by Mr. Howard, to be found in a paper read before the Askesian Society in London, and published in the seventh volume of the Philosophical Magazine.

Such is the support and security which the doctrine of sol-lunar influence in severs derives from evidence direct and analogical. From the sublime discoveries of Lavoisier respecting the composition of the atmosphere it receives protection of another kind. In the present imperfect state of our knowledge regarding the component parts of

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^{*} Traité de Meteorologie, par Le P. Gorre, page 343.

[†] Vide the Transactions of the Royal Society, Vol. -

Traité de Meteorologie, par Le P. Cotte, page 399.

Doctor Moseley's Treatife on the Difeases of the West Indies, and LE P. Cotte.

^{6.} At Reglin, by M. Changeux, vide Traité de Meteorologie, par Le P. Cotte, page 618, at Padine; by lur. Toaldo and his Nephew, vide Traité de Meteorologie, par Le P. Cotte, page 616, &c. &c.

stmospheric air, and the mode of their combination, who will presume to limit or define its connection with sol-lunar insluence? Who
will be so hardy and so regardless of his own reputation as to pronounce without proof, that this insluence has no power to produce
any change whatever in the nature of this compounded fluid; in
the smallest degree connected with useful knowledge; or necessary
in any respect to be known?

2dly. For the purpose of removing the obstacles that arise from the intricacy and labor of astronomical investigations, in which those who are employed in the study and practice of medicine can have no leisure to engage, it will be sufficient to present a plain and simple idea of this power, with the common changes to which it is liable, abstracted from all the complicated circumstances by which those changes are produced: The consideration of which, though indispensibly necessary for the nicer purposes of astronomy, are by no means required for those of medicine and meteorology.

It was determined by DE LA PLACE*, in 1790, that the force of the moon to excite those perturbations that manifest themselves on the surface of our globe, by the elevation of the tides, is three, and that of the sun one. Assuming this as a soundation, we have only to conceive that those two quantities of power, sometimes affishing and sometimes counteracting each other according to the varying positions in which they are placed, produce the corresponding changes that are observed in the paroxysms of severs; remembering, at the same time, that those are occasionally subject to certain perturbations of inferior

^{*} Affroncenie par Jerome Le Francais La Lande, Tome III, Troisieme Edition Augmentée, additions et corrections, page 737.

consequence, from the attractions of the planets. To conceive this, is all that is required.

this reflered for red character and

3dly. To render our knowledge of this principle sufficiently perfect, by giving it all the advantages of numerical precision, without which no physical principle can ever acquire the form and efficiency of science, it is necessary that all the various degrees of increase or decrease that fol-lunar influence is liable to undergo at various hours of the day and night, should be accurately ascertained, and expressed in numbers.

In is to attain this end that I am now led to propose the scheme of an astronomical Ephemeris for the purposes of medicine and meteorology, containing a column for the horal variations of sollunar power both day and night, ascertained and expressed with all the precision that can be obtained.

To thole who are profitient in altronomy it will will be the order that

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The perturbing force of the moon being found by De La Place to be three, and that, of the fun one; and four, therefore, being the whole of the perturbing power with which they can act upon this globe, we shall obtain by dividing this sum into forty parts or degrees, a scale sufficiently extensive and minute for expressing all the different degrees that can possibly occur.

tlemen, where made have englished them, and whole neal may incline

By means of this Ephemeris, every phenomenon that appears being inftantly and eafily compared with the existing corresponding degree of fol-lunar power, certain general truths will at length be obtained, resp. Jing its agency and interference in the different processes of name; and operations of art. We shall ultimately discover where it

affifts, where it counteracts, and where it produces no effects at all; precepts and cautions will thence arise to direct our conduct; and thus affuming the real character and office of science, it will become an instrument of improvement and perfection in the useful occupations of life. In our native country the respectable tradesmen, who are employed in the important national concerns, of supplying our sleets destined for distant voyages and warm climates, with wholesome and durable provisions, are often unaccountably disappointed in the quality of the different articles which they provide. Perhaps they may discover that all the days of the month are not alike favourable for the important processes of brewing, and baking, and of preserving meat. And perhaps abroad, the manufacturers of indigo, sugar, falt-petre, and opium, may find out hereaster, that the success of their different operations is not altogether unconnected with certain periods of time.

To those who are proficient in astronomy it will readily occur, that the construction of an Ephemeris, such as that which is proposed, is not merely speculative or impracticable. It will occur to them that there is no hour or division of the column appropriated to the variations of sol-lunar power, for which the precise degree or quantum of its force is not either ascertained by astronomical theorems already demonstrated, or readily deducible from such demonstrations. On those gentlemen, whose studies have qualified them, and whose zeal may incline them, from a sense of its utility, to complete the construction of this instrument, I must for the present rest my hopes. My own impersect knowledge of astronomy, and the pecarious state of my health, renderme at this time totally unequal to such an exertion.

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CONCLUSION.

In concluding this paper, I hope it will not be deemed difrespectful, if to prevent future mistakes, I should take this opportunity of declaring explicitly my own fentiments respecting the refult and fuccess of these investigations.

- " HAVING discovered the laws of febrile paroxysms, and having mark" ed their course and periods in a manner that was never explained
- " or done before, I conceive that I have been able to unfold a history
- " and theory of fevers entirely new; confishent with itself in every
- " part, and with the other appearances of nature; perfectly confor-
- " mable to the laws discovered by the immortal Newton; and capable
- " of producing important improvements in medicine and meteorology."

Should these pretentions prove groundless and visionary, having submitted them to this Society, I shall at least obtain the credit of having sought investigation. If they be fair and just, the harmless vanity of proclaiming them will not obliterate all their merit.

EXPLANATION OF THE TABLES.

Or all the phenomena that occur in the contemplation of animal nature, it will be readily acknowledged, that the paroxysms of severs are the most interesting to mankind. The history of every age declares the dreadful desolations they have made in every country; and by far the greatest portion of the human race continues to be rept away by this terrible disease.

The cause, however, that produces these remarkable effects, and determines the paroxiyms of severs to appear in different cases in various order and succession, constituting severs of different types; and that again which determines different types to come to an end after certain intervals of time, forming these into severs of different durations, are questions which have hitherto desied the research of physicians; and cannot be explained, except by the laws of sol-lunar influence.

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-confor- LAPLAINS THE TYPES OF FEVERS.

The different types that occur in fevers are formed by febrile paroxysms continuing to return in succession for a certain number of days, at an interval of 12, 24, and 48 hours; or some other larger multiple of 12 hours; and almost invariably in coincidence with the period of the tides. The types of severs, therefore, are formed by the action of sol-lunar influence producing paroxysms in coincidence with the periods of the tides, at the intervals I have described: and differ from each other, only in so far as their paroxysms return in succession at intervals formed by different multiples of 12 hours.

To convey a general idea of this discovery, I have constructed Table I, observing that it applies to explain all the types that I have ever met with in India; and agrees perfectly with the types that are described by other authors. The first of these examples, from the perfect coincidence of its paroxysms with the period of the tides, I have

called a perfect type; and all the others, from their imperfect coincidence with those periods, imperfect types. But as the paroxysms of the imperfect types, after the commencement of the neaps are generally disposed to become less distinct in their form, and therefore not so easily reducible to the figure of a diagram, I have confined my representation of types to the period of the springs; when the paroxysms of severs happen towards the middle of the day and night; and are most regular and distinct.

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and below these lines.

3dly. Single dotts above the line represent fir gle paroxysms happening towards the midde part of the day, and are pointed out by the letter d (for diurnal) placed at their beginning on the left.

pening towards the middle part of the night, and are pointed out by the letter n (for noctarnal) placed at their beginning on the left.

line, denote a diurnal and mocturnal paroxy in on the fame day. The different faceofficers of dotts on the different horizontal lines of the table, proceeding from the beginning of the line on the left to its termination on the right, exhibit examples of various fue-cessions of paroxy ins; constituting specimens of different febrile types that occur daily in the course of nature.

Grify. The firecessions of dotts on the different horizontal lines of the table proceeding from the beginning of the line on the left to their termination on the right, reprefent the different fac estions of that occur in severs of a ferfest tyle (or what are commonly

TABLE M.

EXPLAINS THE DURATIONS AND CRISES OF FEVERS.

Fevers of all the different types that are produced in the manner described in Table I. are limited to forms of different durations, by the remarkable remission which take place in the power of sollunar influence on the commencement of the neaps; and which brings them at these junctures to a termination, or erists, whenever the state of the body is sufficiently disposed to concur in that event. This is illustrated by the variations produced in the duration of perfect types as exhibited in this table; which will also serve, without any other diagram, to give an idea of the variations produced in a similar manner in the durations of types that are impersect.

of this table.

above and below these lines.

3dly. Single dotts above the lines represent single paroxysms happening towards the middle part of the day, and are pointed out by the letter d (for diurnal) placed at their beginning on the left.

4thly. Single dotts below the line represent single paroxysms happening towards the middle part of the night, and are pointed out by the letter n (for nocturnal) placed at their beginning on the left.

5thly. Two dotts in one division, one above the line, the other below, denote a diurnal and nocturnal paroxysm on the same day.

6thly. The successions of dotts on the different horizontal lines of the table proceeding from the beginning of the line on the lest to their termination on the right, represent the different successions of paroxysms that occur in severs of a perfect type, (or what are commonly called con-

tinued fevers,) which ceasing on the commencement of the neaps, constitute different durations of perfect types; and those will serve also to give an idea of the variety that may be produced in a similar manner in the duration of types that are imperfect; commonly called remitting and intermitting severs.

7thly. Although fingle paroxyfms will appear from the difpofal of the dotts in this table to be confined to the neaps, and double paroxyfms to the fprings, it must however be understood, that this is not always rigidly or invariably true; and they are represented here in this manner, only to denote their general and prevailing tendency and course; which must always be liable to certain deviations, not only from uncommon perturbations in the state of sol-lunar influence itself; but also from the usual and regular action of this influence happening to exert itself upon extraordinary degrees of paroxysmal propensity.

8thly. The daily postponing of the paroxysms cannot easily be represented on a fixed or immoveable diagram of this kind. But the effects which it has of shifting their accessions from night to morning, about the middle of the neaps, is denoted by shifting the single dotts, that represent the paroxysms at this time, from the nocturnal to the diurnal side of the line. The postponing of the paroxysms is a phenomenon that has been too little attended to in the history of severs.

EXPLANATION OF TABLE III.

THIS is the second Table in Doctor Currie's Medical Reports on the effects of water, &c. arranged agreeably to the doctrine of follunar influence.

In order to accommodate it to this idea, the column of the January and February admissions are removed from the left to the right-hand side of the Table; so as to bring all the three months of the winter interval together, and to preserve the natural order in which the admissions followed each other, the whole of these two columns is raised one step higher: so that the January and February admissions of 1781, are brought upon the same line with those of December 1780, and therefore sollow them, in this Table, as they really occurred; and so also with all the rest.

By this arrangement the admissions of January and February 1780, are thrown out of their proper place at the top of their respective columns. But are inserted at the bottom; and thus fill up the vacancies that were occasioned by raising the columns in the manner described; and by this means the amount of these columns is preserved the same as in the original Table.

The elevation however of the January and February admissions above the lines in which they stood in the original Table, makes a small alteration in each of the annual amounts; but as that does not alter the sum total; nor affect in the smallest degree the present question, it is of no consequence.

TABLE

Illustrates the Formation of the different Types of Fevers, by the succession of their Paroxysms at various intervals, in coincidence with the Periods of the Tides.

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The aft is a Type common in Bengal, in the Typhus. The zd is the Triple Tertian of Cleghorn, page 142.	A Type formed by a Diurnal Paroxyfm returning every 4th &c. &c. &c.	Туре	A Type formed by a Diurnal and Nochirnal Paroxyfin A Type formed by a Diurnal Paroxyfin returning every	A Type formed by a Nocturnal Paroxy/m only returning every day	A Type formed by a	A Type formed by a Diur, and Nock, Par. every 3d day, the	A Type formed by a	A Type formed by a			
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The 2d is the Triple Tertian of Cleghorn, page 142.

The 3d is the fiprious fample Tertian of Cleghorn, page 142.

The 4th is the common Quotidian every where.

B. The 5th is also a Quotidian which I have seen often in Bengal.

The 5th is the double Tertian of Cleghorn, page 140.

The 5th is the true sample Tertian of Cleghorn, page 140.

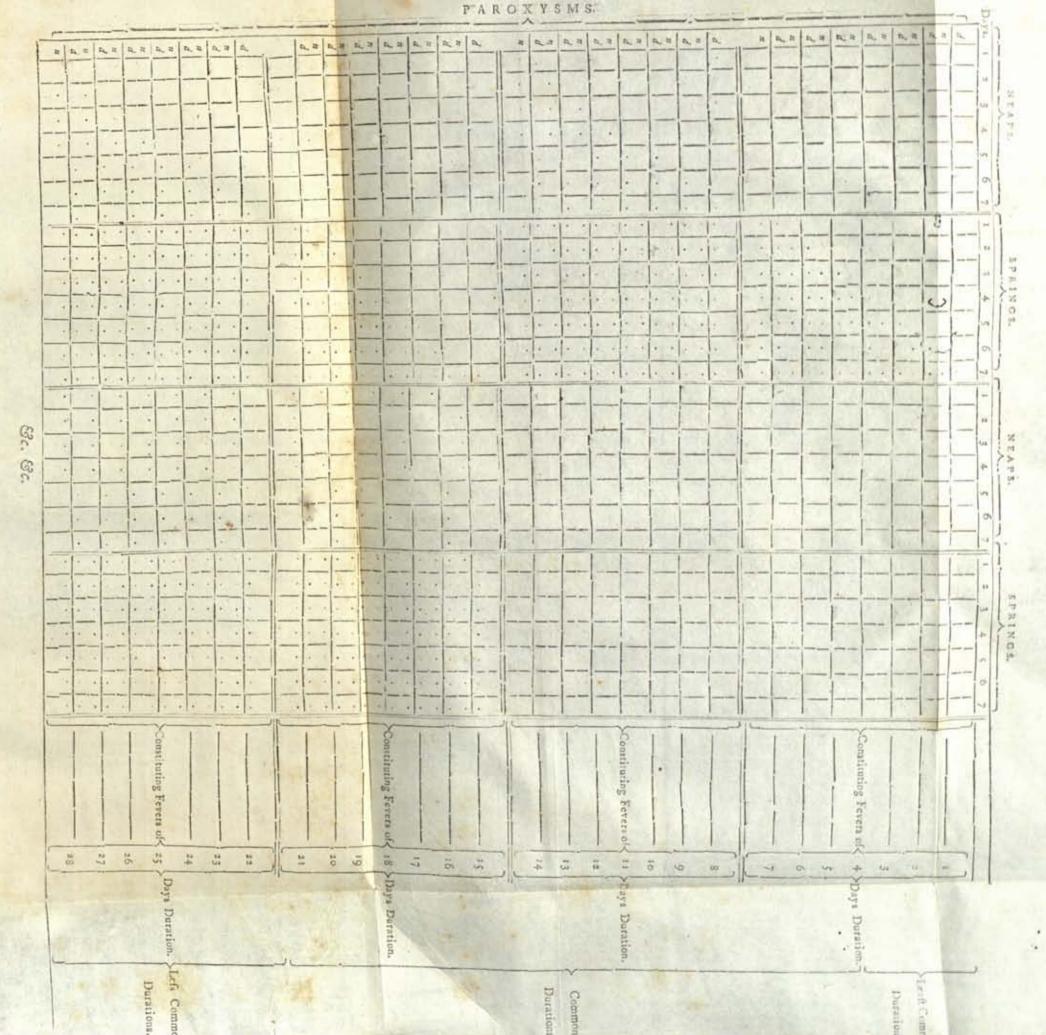
The 5th is another Tertian of Cleghorn, page 140.

The 5th is another Tertian which I have seen often in Bengal.

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TABLE II.

Illustrates the Formation of the different DunaTions of Fevers the Commencement of the by the NEAPS. Ceasing of



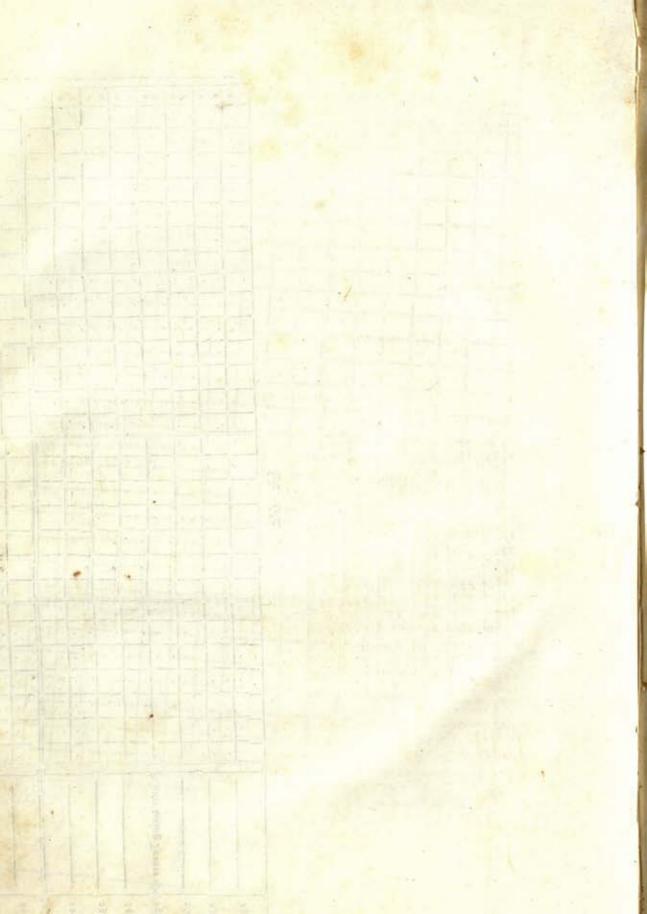


TABLE III.

Demonstrates the Periodical Increase and Decrease of Fevers, in coincidence with the Equinoctial Periods and Interequinoctial Intervals, at Liverpool in England.

The Vernal Equinoctial Period. Int			The Summer erequinoctial Interval.			The Autumnal Equinoctial Period.			The Winter			erval.	
Year.	Mar.	April.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	08.	Nov.	Dec. 1	Jan.	Feb.	Total.
1780 1781 1782 1783 1784 1785 1786 1787 1788 1790 1791 1792 1793 1794	179 180 231 184 245 296 216 301 213 338 337 277 269 221 383	173 200 292 207 247 294 234 235 323 294 230 278 259 280	168 187 148 122 232 219 202 313 253 391 281 233 261 237 337	183 154 159 212 225 187 155 356 245 247 240 237 334 305	191 157 120 136 270 173 159 255 271 184 343 266 236 199 291	150 127 140 227 230 180 188 192 311 162 270 248 223 197 245	129 167 143 265 266 186 169 218 258 212 310 300 211 338 303	186 234 182 316 247 250 211 234 341 214 340 344 330 305 290	150 208 150 257 369 244 167 283 315 204 355 335 212 224 258	133 223 158 273 297 182 197 326 295 208 269 371 174 227 326	319 176 253 359 174 157	268 166 209 174 176 248 247 361 209 230 265	2936 3470 3344 3151 2925 3405 2970
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Extrager from a Journelle, during the late Company in Borre.

By Cornard C. B. BURR.

A DUT three miles to the well ward a Committee in the first of the Nile, are intuiting the room of the union warp, or he is an appropriate to the committee of the committee of

Before this on the largest, or I partly Appeal in the moved of table bills, is a gateway, much remon on the site we approximate that a but whole interest and the appealing sometimes of a tipe flate of preferences, and the complete of the largest of the largest

II.

EXTRACT from a JOURNAL, during the late Compaign in EGYPT.

BY CAPTAIN C. B. BURR.

BOUT three miles to the westward of Ginnie, on the opposite side of the Nile, are situated the ruins of the antient temple of Isis, now better known to the Arabs by the name of Dendera; being a corruption of Tentyris, which name was once borne by a city, of which the present temple is all that remains to denote its former splendour. That part which still exists, is surrounded by such heaps of rubbish, broken walls, and fragments of an Arab village, long since mouldered on its parent ruins, that little is perceptible in approaching, except sive clumsy pillars forming part of a detached temple at some distance from the gate, with which it is in a right line, though now separated by a tank, silled by the inundation of the Nile. These columns are connected at their base by a stone wall in which there appear to have been eight, one at each corner, and one on either side of an entrance in front, and rear of the building; which is about forty seet long, and possessing nothing worthy attention.

BEYOND this on the fummit, and partly buried in the mound of rubbish, is a gateway much ruined on the side we approached from, but whose internal face is an object of peculiar admiration; its high state of preservation, the excellence of its sculpture, the simplicity of the style, the excellent execution of the sigures, chiefly semale, the

hieroglyphics, and other ornamental parts, excited my furprife beyond what I had expected or thought possible. It is probably rather an advantage to the temple, its being fo furrounded with ruins as to be fecreted till you approach fufficiently near, to receive a more perfect impression of its beauties. The rubbish however with which it is choaked up, confines the fight, too much, and almost precludes the possibility of viewing the building, with fo good an effect as would arise from a greater choice of fituation on the part of the spectator. Passing this gateway, the paffage through which is also beautifully sculptured; we reached on the right hand a temple, furrounded by a gallery flill entire though almost buried, the whole ornamented with a variety of figures, furrounded with hieroglyphics, which doubtlefs explain the meaning of the various objects, fome human, others of a lefs definite nature; the workmanship is in very great preservation, but the gallery so filled as to prevent our standing erect, though the body of this temple into which we descended, was near thirty feet in height, covered with large slabs of stone. The entrance to this edifice is through a corridore supported on pillars almost buried in the ruins.

The grand temple, retired from the gateway about fifty yards, prefents a front of one hundred and forty feet at the base; at least-what is now the terreplain: and about fixty feet in height, the rest being invisible. This part is in the most perfect state; the fillet, torus, and almost every ornamental part, save what the bigotry of the Arabs has induced them to deface, being in excellent preservation. In the center an entrance of nineteen seet leads into a peristyle divided by three rows of columns on either side of twenty-two and half seet circumference, the front row connected to each other at their bases, by a wall; which, from a part that has been cleared away by the Savans to ascer-

tain the elevation of the building, exceeds ten feet in height; from the top of this to the entablature of the columns, the space is left open; within are nine pillars to the right, and left, (tallying in fize and defign with those in front,) that support the roof of the peristyle; which is ornamented in the most beautiful flyle, with a vast variety of figures, and reprefentations of aquatic fcenes. Many groupes of men, and beafts, are here represented; some perfectly of a terrestrial and familiar nature, others allegorical, amongst which is a fine figure of a bull butting at the new Moon. The dreffes, the utenfils, canoes, and many of the articles of the domestic economy of the antient Egyptains, are herein represented in the most minute and pleasing manner; and the entire flate of these figures; not only in shape, but colouring, conveys the most perfect idea of the habits of the times. A vast refemblance exists in the dreffes with those at present worn in India; the cholie of the women, the moond, and many others, claiming a direct comparison. It has often ftruck me, and never more forcibly than in contemplating this temple and its sculptures, that there must have existed a much greater affinity in the customs of, and of course a more friendly intercourse amongst, the nations of the East formerly, when they pursued one fyshem of worship, than since the introduction of Christianity, and Mahometanism; which by generating the most rooted and inveterate prejudices, have estranged the affections of mankind from those, whom no political difference could ever have affected. Of this we had an example even amongst the present inhabitants, who regarding us as infidels, hate us though we came as friends. Their diflike however they found it prudent to conceal; but they were not equally referved with respect to the Hindoos, whom they often expressed their abhorrence of. This detestation of Paganism has induced them, and doubtless been their fole motive for taking fo much pains, to mutilate every figure of

Isis, whose features are chiffeled out; and many of the other figures whose fituations were not so elevated, as to preserve them from the destructive contact of the Arab, have suffered almost perfect annihilation. All beyond it however are extremely perfect, and the whole ceiling, with one or two trifling exceptions, is entire; the capitals of the pillars are square, each face having had a representation of Isis's head on it, which though fo roughly handled, the turban has in no instance been destroyed, and the colouring of it, the bandeaus, and other decorations, are still in the greatest perfection. The stone of which the temple is built is a kind of free-stone. As this would not receive either polish or paint, figures and hieroglyphics, with which every part of the periftyle, both internally, and externally is covered, have, in the interior, been plastered over with a fine cement, which has not only received a polish that has stood the test of ages, but has retained the brilliancy of the tints, particularly the blue, in a manner almost incredible. The mystic symbol of the winged Orb, of which reiterated representations decorate the ceiling of the central division of the peristyle, extending entirely across, bears the brightest hues; the same mysterious type adorns the entablature over the entrance, and the interior face of the same part of the gateway; the walls are covered with various sculptures, representing different parts of the history of Isis, one or two of the principal figures in each, being evidently the fame, though each compartment into which the wall is divided, reprefents fome feparate event: but above the head of Isis, on each of the fides of each column, the two central front ones excepted, is the Deity's birth, without variation, all most elegantly executed, and exact counterparts of each other. The interior length of this periftyle is one hundred and twenty-three feet, and fixty-four deep; the walls at either end near nine feet thick, decreafing externally as they afcend; the flabs of stone forming the roofs,

are over the center columns, twenty-five feet long, about fix broad, and extremely thick.

HENCE, by a large portal of elegant architecture, we entered the vestibule, the roof of which, confiderably lower than that of the periffyle, is supported by fix pillars, three on either fide; their decorations much mutilated: the little that is visible, shews them to be fluted. This room is about half the length, and breadth, of the outer one, but being nearly filled with rubbish, we passed through another large door, into a room of the fame length, and height, but narrow enough to admit of large flabs reaching across without the intervention of pillars. Apertures are cut in the ceiling to admit air, and light, and a paffage or door, to the right and left, leads to other parts of the temple. Facing the door where we had entered, is another which led into a third room rather larger, and lighted in like manner from above; from these there are four doors leading to different parts of the building, to the right and left; and a portal facing that by which we had entered, which led us into a dark recefs about thirty feet long, and twenty-five broad, whose roof in like manner confifted of transversal flabs. This probably was the great fanctuary, at the further extremity of which, was a hole through which we were enabled to defcend into a vault, which like the rest of the apartments is nearly filled with earth. We however afcertained by our lights that the floor above was formed of numerous fmall flabs of flone comented to each other, and deflitute of any other support than what they derived from the judicious manner in which they were united. Returning hence after vifiting fome rooms to our right, we went through a passage to the left that led to an apartment, where we in vain endeavored to maintain our ground against a host of bats, that finally obliged us to refume the course of this passage,

which led by steps of easy ascent, and many windings round their .center, to the fummit of the temple; in approaching which it branches off to the right and left, the latter opening to a corridore, within which was a fanctuary, through the floor of which a perforation afforded light to a part of the temple which had not fallen under our obfervation. On the ceiling of this corridore, which is about twenty feet long. and half that breadth, is a curious female figure sculptured in relievo, represented in a bent, extended posture. The limbs though disproportioned are particularly beautiful, it is in the highest preservation, and worthy peculiar attention. By fome steps projecting from the rear of the periftyle, we afcended to its fubmit, whence we commanded a fine view of the country, Ginnie, our camp, and the meanderings of the river; in our rear was a spacious burial ground; beyond an extensive defert. The intervening diffance to the Nile was covered with rushes, and a thorny weed which gave the country a verdant appearance, and fupplied the place of a luxuriant cultivation. The numerous villages, each shaded by its grove of dates, afforded a faint conception of an Indian scene, but the sterility of the neighbouring deserts that bounded the contracted landscape, forbad the indulgence of the pleasing comparison.

On the flabs are cut the names of feveral French travellers, who visited the place in 1779, and one of a democrat dated the year eight.

Leaning over the temple, I discovered on the fillet, a Greek inscription in a state of great preservation, which I transcribed, and afterwards revised from below; unfortunately the information it conveys is trisling, and the obliteration of a part prevents its being of that utility I had at first anticipated.

Though we had ascended by the stairs, the mound of ruins on one fide presented a more ready descent; and industriously profiting of the moment, we lost no time in completing our observations.

THE French have been digging round, and within the temple, in different places to afcertain its dimensions, and we were indebted for our access to many of the rooms, to the pains taken by them to difcover their entrances; for which purpose they have removed a great deal of rubbish. The whole exterior of the temple is in perfect preservation, except the defacement which many of the figures within reach have fuffered. On the fouth, and west faces, are some very elegant spouts for carrying off water, iffuing from the mouths of couchant lions, decorated with rams-horns. The whole fummit of the temple is disfigured by heaps of rubbish, and fragments of walls, as also the mounds which furround it, which probably owe their existence to a colonade, or fome range of buildings with which it was enclosed, and which are now buried. To the foutheast, at some hundred yards distance, is a ruined gateway boasting little beauty; it is situated at the foot of the eminence on which the temple is built, and being almost beyond the range of the prefent ruins, might have belonged to some other edifice. Some wretched Arabs, who employ themselves in digging amongst the ruins, brought us a few Roman coins, which we purchased.

Though we had been feveral hours in contemplating the beautiful monument before us, yet we had conceived but an inadequate idea of its varied perfections; fo many objects occurred to arrest our attention, each discovering some peculiar attraction, that it would have afforded ample occupation during our remaining stay at Ginnie, to have bestowed on each the consideration they merited; a circumstance, which

greatly damped the anxiety I had before felt to visit Thebes; where such an infinity of matter presents itself to the inquisitive traveller.

Our Indian followers, who had attended us, beheld the scene before them with a degree of admiration, bordering on veneration; arising not only from the affinity they traced in several of the sigures to their own deities, but from their conviction of its being the work of some Rácshas, who they conceived had visited the earth, to transmit to an admiring posterity a testimony of supernatural talents.

I shall difmifs this fubject, by observing, that, though the contemplation of these surprising monuments of the genius of the antient Egyptians creates a high idea of their civilization, and respect for their antiquity, and progress in arts; it is obvious they are greatly indebted to a beneficent providence, which by placing them in a temperature, where the frequent and sudden transitions of climate seldom if ever occur, has given to their works, a permanence, they could never have derived from the combined power and art of man; though it must be allowed, that notwithstanding the apparent aridity of the atmosphere, owing to the almost perpetual absence of rain, the exhalations, * from the circumjacent inundation, are so great as to occasion, at one period of the year, a humidity little inserior to that which would proceed from actual immersion; and which in their consequences would equally affect that brilliancy of colouring, which has stamped a characteristic pre-eminence on these chef d'ouvres.

^{*} It is an opinion in Egypt, that the fall of these dews, not only averts the plague, but cures those who are affected with it.

N. B. Sonini, in vol. III, of his Travels in Egypi, gives very correct delineations of fome of the most remarkable sculptures of this temple.

TO ROBERT HOME, Esq.

Secretary to the Afiatick Society.

SIR.

The state of the s HE ingenious and learned author of the inquiry into the life and writings of Homer speaks of abstracted mythology, as the result of great fearch and science: being a comparison of the harmony and discord, the refemblance and diffimilitude, of the powers and parts of the universe, it often consists of their finest proportions and hidden aptitudes, fet together and personated by a being acting like a mortal.

Ir is from this and fimilar observations of this instructive writer, and from the history of the Heavens by the Abbe Pluche, that I have been led to investigate the mythology of India; and to apply their mode of reasoning to a system which has generally been considered as a heap of wild and extravagant fable.

In fact we must view the images of India in the light of hieroglyphics, and endeavour to develope the allusion: this is the object of the accompanying attempts; but I only offer my conjectures; I infift upon no hypothesis.

Is these essays should be deemed acceptable by the Society, it will be an inducement to me to continue the refearch.

I am, SIR,

DACCA. the 4th January, 1803. Your obedient Servant, J. D. PATERSON.

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OF THE ORIGIN OF THE HINDU RELIGION.

BY J. D. PATTERSON, ESQ.

HE Hindu religion appears to me to have been originally a reform of existing fystems, when the arts and sciences had arrived at a degree of persection; that it was intended to correct the serociousness and corruption of the times, and to reduce mankind to an artificial order on a firmer base of polity; that it was the united effort of a society of sages, who retained the priesthood to themselves and rendered it hereditary in their families by the division of the people into separate casts; that it was supported by the regal authority, which, while it controused, it supported in return: that it was promulgated in all its persection at once as a revelation of high antiquity, to stamp its decrees with greater authority; and that it was sounded on pure Deism, of which the Gayatri, translated by Sir William Jones, is a striking proof; but to comply with the gross ideas of the multitude who required a visible object of their devotion, they personified the three great attributes of the deity.

The first founders of the Hindu religion do not appear to have had the intention of bewildering their followers with metaphysical definitions; their description of the deity was confined to those attributes which the wonders of the creation so loudly attest: his almighty power to create; his providence to preserve; and his power to annihilate or change what he has created.

In fact, no idea of the deity can be formed beyond this: it is simple, but it forces conviction upon the mind. This simplicity however was

destroyed, when they attempted to describe these attributes to the eye, by hieroglyphics; perhaps letters had not then been invented; in which case they could have no other mode of instruction than by signs and emblematical figures.

Brahma had originally five heads, alluding to the five elements; hence in one of the forms given to Si'va, as the Creator, he is likewise represented with five heads. But the introduction of images soon led the mass of mankind to consider these personisied attributes as real distinct personages; and as one error brings with it many others in its train, men separated into sects, each selecting one of the triad, the particular object of their devotion, in presence to and exclusive of the

others: the followers of Vishnu and Siva invented new fymbol each, to afcribe to their respective divinity the attribute of creation. This contention for pre-eminence ended in the total suppression of the worship of Brahma, and the temporary submission of the sect of Vishnu, to the superiority of Siva; but this did not last long; the two rival sects raised crusades against each other; hordes of armed fanatics, under the titles of Sannyasis and Vairagis, enlisted themselves as champions of their respective saith; the former devoted their lives in support of the superiority of Siva, and the latter were no less zealous for the rights of Vishnu: alternate victory and deseat marked the progress of a religious war, which for ages continued to harrass the earth and inslame mankind against each other.

PLUTARCH has faid of the Egyptians, that they had inferted nothing into their worship without a reason, nothing merely fabulous, nothing superstitious (as many suppose); but their institutions have either a reference to morals, or to something useful in life; and many of them bear a beautiful resemblance of some facts in history, or some appearance in nature; perhaps in the commencement to lead mankind into superstition was not intended nor foreseen; it is a weed that springs up naturally when religion is blended with mystery and burdened with perplexing ceremonials. The mass of mankind lost sight of morality in the multiplicity of rites, and as it is easier to practise ceremonies, than to subdue the passions, ceremonies gradually become substitutes for real religion, and usurp the place of morality, and virtue.

This feems to have been the case with the religions of Egypt and India.

In the course of investigating the ceremonies of the Hindus, and in attempting to develope their meaning, it will be found necessary to compare them with the ceremonies and rites of Egypt: the resemblance is striking; they mutually serve to explain each other; and leave no doubt in my mind of their connexion or rather identity.

The annihilation of the fect and worship of Brahma, as the Iswara or supreme lord, is allegorically described in the Cástichand of the Scanda Purón, where the three powers are mentioned as contending for precedency. Vishnu, at last, acknowledges the superiority of Si'va, but Brahma, on account of his presumptuous obstinacy, and pride, had one of his heads cut off by Si'va, and his puja abolished.

THE intent of this fable is evidently to magnify the fect of Siva, above those of Brahma, and Vishnu; and if, instead of the Dévatás themselves, (who are described as the actors in this allegorical drama) we substitute the contending sects, the sable will appear not destitute of foundation in historical sact.

OF THE VAHANS, OR VEHICLES OF THE GODS.

WHEN the fymbolical worship was introduced, the vehicles of the new deities were necessarily allegorical: the Vahans of the three supreme personified attributes were purity, truth, and justice; the first was typisted by the Swan, which, clothed with unspotted whiteness, swims amidst the waters, as it were distinct from, and unfulsed by them, as the truly pure mind remains untainted amidst the surrounding temptations of the world.

GARUDA and ARUNA are two brothers, the one remarkable for his strength and swiftness, the other (ARUNA) is described as imperfect, and on account of his desects, destined to act as charioteer to the Sun. ARUNA is the dawn, the morning twilight, which precedes the Sun: GARUDA is perfect light, the dazzling full blaze of day, the type of truth, the celestial Váhan of Vishnu.

JUSTICE typified in the facred bull, is the Vahan of Si'va. The Bull, whose body is Paraméśwara; and whose every joint is a virtue; whose three horns are the three Védas; whose tail, ends where Adherma, or injustice begins.

OF OSIRIS, HORUS, TYPHON, AND BRAHMA, VISH-NU, AND SIVA.

To we consider the Egyptain Osiris not as a name, but as a title of fupremacy, which each sect, as their doctrines became in turn the established religion of the country, applied exclusively to the object of their worship; and if we consider it as the same with the Sanscrit Iswara (the Supreme Lord) it will greatly illustrate the identity of the religions of Egypt, and Hindustan, by a close coincidence of historical sact. The three great attributes of the Deity had in course of time been erected into distinct Deities, and mankind had divided into sects, some attaching themselves to Brahma, some to Vishnu, and others to Siva. The contention of schismatics from the same stock is always more inveterate than where the difference is total, the sect of Brahma, claimed exclusive pre-eminence for the object of their choice, as being the creative power, the Iswara, or Supreme Lord. The two other sects joined

against the followers of BRAHMA, and obtained so complete a victory as to abolish totally that worship; the sect of Siva, being the most powerful, rendered theirs the established religion, and claimed for S'IVA. in his turn, the exclusive title of I's war A. The fect of Vishnu or HERI at length emerged from its obfcurity, and, in concert with the followers of the Sasti, or female power, destroyed and abolished the fest and worfhip of S'IVA; thus VISHNU or HERI became the I's'WARA, and his worship the established religion. This seems to have been the case in Egypt; for, if we substitute the name of Osiris for BRAHMA, Horus for VISHNU or HERI, TYPHON for S'IVA, and Isis for the female principle, the history agrees in all its parts. A proof of the identity of Siva and Typhon is the title of BABON. Mr. BRYANT fays, that "BABON was " thought to have been the fame as Typhon, by some esteemed a female " and the wife of that perfonage." One of the titles of Siva is BHUBAN, or rather BHUVAN-ISWARA, the Lord of the Universe; his confort in this character is stiled Bhuvan-I'swari, which may have occasioned the uncertainty mentioned by Mr. BRYANT with respect to the fex of that Deity, fince Bhuvan (world,) or the Universe, is a part of the title of either. and the winds of the state of the same of the state of th

The Sun is one of the forms of Herr or Vishnu; Osiais and Horus are both supposed to have been the Sun. The Indian expedition of Osiais coincides with the adventures of RAMA, one of the incarnations of Vishnu. The four months sleep of Horus tallies with the four months sleep of Vishnu.

THE facred Bull, the vehicle of Siva, was the emblem of justice, and peculiarly facred to him amongst the Indians; and the living animal itself was venerated at Memphis and Thebes, under the names of Aris and Mnevis. The Phallos of Osiris was an object of worship,

to continue, to consecrate and with a man, but with the same of the si

and it is known to be the hieroglyphic of S'IVA: and lastly, Osiris, like Brahma, is described as a great lawgiver.

If the conjecture I have fet out with, in this article, be confidered with:

attention, it will account for the mixed character of the Grecian:

Breehuse

The word Surá in Sanscrit signifies both wine and true wealth; hence in the first Chand of the Rámayan of Valenic, it is expressly said, that the Dévatás, having received the Surá, acquired the title of Suras, and the Daityas that of Asura, from not having received it. The Véda is represented as that wine, and true wealth; and the Dévatás as enjoying it in a sufuperior degree, being termed Suras: the prince, or supreme leader of the Suras, became in the Grecian Deity (by a confined translation of the word) the god of wine and drunkards.

BACCHUS, or OSIRIS, was reprefented by an equilateral triangle; S'IVAL has the same hieroglyphic: the worship of BACCHUS was the same as that which is paid to Si'vA; it had the same obscenities, the same bloody rites, and the same emblem of the generative power.

IN BACCHUS may be traced the characteristicks of each of the perfonages in the Indian triad; and this may be accounted for by supposing the Greeks to have been deceived by the title Osiris: they, considering it as the name of an individual, mingled the characters and adventures of all the three in one personage. Bacchus may possibly be derived from a title of VR ihaspati, Va'g-I's'a, the lord of speech, which might be applied to Brahma' as the husband of Saraswati the goddess of speech. The Greeks called him Bromios, as Sir William Jones says, without

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knowing why; and he was flyled by the Romans Bruma: his feafts were celebrated for several days at the winter folstice; from him they were called Brumalia, and the winter folstice itself Bruma.

The crescent of S'IVA may have suggested the horns of BACCHUS; and his army of Satyrs, and victories in *India*, shew the resemblance of this part of his character to Vishnu as Ra'MA, who, with his army of monkies, overran the peninsula of *India*.

It was a common practice with the Greeks to disguise their own ignorance of the purport of a foreign word, by supplying a word of a similar sound, but different meaning, in their own language, and inventing a story to agree with it: thus Méru or the north pole, the supposed abode of the Dévatàs, being considered as the birth place of the God, gave rise to the sable of Bacchus's second birth from the thigh of Jupiter, because Meros, a Greek word approaching Méru in sound, signifies the thigh in that language. Siva is described as taking the form of a Sinh in the battle of Durga' and Mahisha'sura; he seizes the monster with his claws and teeth, and overthrows him, while Durga', with her spear, sinishes the conquest by his death. Thus Bacchus under the same form is described as destroying the giant Rhœcus.

Rhacum retorfisti Leonis Unguibus horribilique Mala.

THE Hindu facrifices to DURGA' and CA'LI' refemble those of BAC-CHUS. When the stroke is given, which severs the head of the victim from its body, the cymbals strike up, the Sanc'h or Buccinum is blown, and the whole assembly, shouting, besmear their faces with the blood; they roll themselves in it, and, dancing like demoniacs, accompany their dances with obscene songs and gestures. The Abbé Pluche mentions the same particulars of the assistants in the facrifices of BACCHUS. The winnowing san, the

Mystica vannus iacchi,

is always used in the rites of Ca'l, Ca'l', and Durga'; but the Hindus at present assix no other idea of mystery to it, than its being an appendage to husbandry; they use it as a tray, on which they place, before the image of the Deity, the Sesamum or Til, the Mundir with its lamp, and all the other articles used in the ceremony. A tray could serve the purpose; but on all solemnities the rituals prescribe exclusively the use of this van or fan, which they call Surp.

OF VISHNU, AS THE CREATIVE POWER.

THE Vaishnavas, in order to appropriate the creative principle to Vishanu, make Brahma, whom they acknowledge as the immediate agent of creation, to derive his origin from a Lotas, which sprang out of the navel of Vishau, whilst sleeping upon the vast abys of primeval waters; thus Vishau becomes superior to Brahma as being the cause first, of his existence; and secondly, of all created things through his agency. The Argha is a vessel of copper used by the Brahmans in their puja; its shape is intended to represent the universal Mother, but in the centre of it is an oval rising embossed, and by this the Vaishnavas affert, is meant the navel of Vishau, from which all things originally sprang; and by the mystic union of these two principles of production, it is intended to describe them as identically one. The Saivas however insist, that this Omphalic rising is meant as the emblem of the Ling; hence Siva's title of Arghana'th, and in the Agama, Argha-Is'a, both meaning the Lord of the sacred Vessel Argha.

VISHNU is represented in the tenth Avatar as the destroying power, thus ascribing to him, the attribute of Si'va.

VISHNU is represented by the Vaishnavas with four arms, and, in each hand, he bears a symbol. These symbols seem intended to unite the three great attributes in him, and to express his universal supremacy. The Lotas typisses his creative power, (in allusion to the Lotas which sprang from his navel). The Sanc'ha typisses his attributes of preservation, and the mace that of destruction; while the Chacra expresses his universal supremacy; as Chacra-Varti, or Lord of the Chacra, when applied to a monarch, indicates universal empire; applied to a Pundit, the possessor of the whole circle of Science.

OF CA'L AND _____CA'LI'.

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When the personified attributes of the Deity ceased to be considered as mere hieroglyphics; when mankind began to view them in the light of distinct persons, and, attaching themselves to the worship of one, or of the other, exclusively, arranged themselves into sects; the worshippers of Siva introduced the doctrines of the eternity of matter. In order to reconcile the apparent contradiction of assigning the attribute of creation to the principle of destruction, they afferted, that the dissolution and destruction of bodies was not real with respect to matter, which was indestructible itself, although its modifications were in a constant succession of mutation; that the power, which continually operates these changes, must necessarily unite in itself the attributes of creation and apparent destruction: that this power, and matter, are two, distinct, and coexistent principles

in nature; the one agent, the other patient; the one male, the other female; and that creation was the effect of the mystic union of these principles.

THE hieroglyphic of this union was worshipped under a variety of names, Bhava and Bhava'ni', Mahade'va and Maha' Ma'ya', &c. Thus the attribute of creation was usurped from Brahma, by the sollowers of Si'va, to adorn and characterize their favourite Deity.

This feems to have been a popular worship for a great length of time. Two feets however sprang up out of it. The one personified the whole universe, and the dispensations of providence in the regulation thereof, into a Goddess; this sect retained the semale symbol only, and denominated themselves Sácta, as worshippers of the Sacti, or semale power, exclusively; which they called Pracriti; and which, we, from the Latin, term nature.

THE other fect infifted, that there was but one, eternal, first cause; that every thing, existing, derived its existence, from the sole energy of that first cause (Niranjen).

In order, therefore, to express their ideas of the absolute independence of this supreme power upon any extra co-operation, they took for their symbol the male emblem, unconnected with that of the semale; a third sect likewise arose, which intended to reconcile the idea of the unity of godhead, with that of the existence of matter and spirit; they, therefore, contended, that the union of those two principles was so mysteriously intimate, as to form but one being, which they represented, by a figure half male, and half semale, and denominated Hara-Gauri, and Ardhan-a'ri Is'wara.

It is probable, that the idea of obscenity was not originally attached to these symbols: and it is likely, that the inventors themselves might not have forefeen the diforders, which this worship would occasion amongst mankind. Profligacy eagerly embraces what flatters its propenfities, and ignorance follows blindly, wherever example excites: it is therefore no wonder, that a general corruption of manners should enfue, increasing, in proportion as the diffance of time involved the original meaning of the fymbol in darkness and oblivion. Obscene mirth became the principal feature of the popular superstition, and was, even in after times, extended to, and intermingled with, gloomy rites and bloody facrifices. An heterogeneous mixture, which appears totally irreconcileable, unless by tracing the steps, which led to it. It will appear, that the engrafting of a new fymbol, upon the old superstition, occasioned this strange medley. The fect of VISHNU was not wholly free from the propenfity of the times to obscene rites; it had been united in interest with that of Sava, in their league against the sect of BRAHMA; as was expressed by an image, called HAR-HERI, half S'IVA, and half VISHNU. This union feems to have continued till the time, when an emblem of an abstract idea, having been crected into an object of worship, introduced a revolution in religion, which had a violent and extended effect, upon the manners and opinions of mankind.

It was then, that a gloomy superstition arose, which spread its baneful influence, with rapidity amongst mankind; which degraded the
Deity into an implacable tyrant; which filled its votaries with imaginary
terrors; which prescribed dreadful rites; and exacted penances, mortifications, and expiatory sacrifices. In short, it was the worship of Ca's
and Ca'li', introduced by the sect of S'IVA, which caused a total separation of the sect of VISHNU, and introduced those religious wars.

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which, in distant ages, seem to have distracted mankind; and of which traces are, even at this day, to be found.

With a view to unite the three great attributes of creation, prefervation, and destruction, in one symbol, the Saivas personified the abstractidea of time (CAL), which may, figuratively, be said, to create,
preserve, and destroy. They therefore distinguished artificial time, and
eternity, with peculiar emblems, in which, the attribute of destruction, the
characteristic of Siva, evidently predominates. The personified Sacti,
or energy of each of these allegorical personages, was decorated with
corresponding emblems. The contemplation of the distinctions of day,
and night; of the light, and dark divisions of the month; of the fix
months night, and six months day of the Gods (occasioned by the apparent
obliquity of the Sun's path); and lastly, the contrast of the visible creation,
with eternal night, suggested the idea of painting CAL white, and Ga'Li' black.

of the three divisions of time: the past, the present, and the future. A crescent on his forehead pourtrays the measure of time by the phases of the Moon. A serpent forms a necklace to denote the measure of time by years. A second necklace, formed of human skulls, marks the lapse and revolution of ages, and the extinction and succession of the generations of mankind. He holds a trident in one hand, to shew, that the three great attributes are inhim assembled, and united. In the other hand, is a kind of rattle, called damaru, shaped like an hour glass: I am inclined to think, it was really, at first, intended as such; since it agrees with the character of the Deity; and a sand gheri is mentioned, in the Sastra, as one of the modes of measuring time, and of assertaining the length of a gheri.

In the hieroglyphic of the Maha' Pralaya, (or grand confummation of all things, when time itself shall be no more,) he is represented as trodden under foot by Maha' Ca'li', or Eternity.

HE is, there, deprived of his crefcent, trident, and necklaces, to shew, that his dominion and powers are no more. He is blowing the tremendous horn, which announces the annihilation of all created things.

MAHA CA'LI', black, and dreadful, is encompassed by symbols of destruction: two of her hands seem employed in the work of death: of the other two, one appears pointing downwards, alluding to the universal havock, which surrounds her: while the other, pointing upwards, seems to promise the regeneration of nature, by a new creation.

When the Sun begins his fouthern declination, the night of the Gods begins: that is, when their supposed abode, Méru (the north pole) begins to be involved in a night of six months: and, as this period may be confidered as a type of Mahá Pralaya, the worship of Maha Ca'll' is celebrated at the commencement thereof.

MAHA' CA'LI' is represented without a crescent (the artificial measure of time,) because it is unnecessary to her character as the hieroglyphic of eternity. But the belief of the Hindus in successive destructions and renovations of the Universe, accounts for her wearing a Mund Mahi, or necklace of skulls, as emblematical of those revolutions.

MAHA CAL, as represented in the caverns of Elephanta, had eight arms. In one hand, he holds a human figure; in another, a sword, or facrificial ax; in a third hand, he holds a basin of blood; and with a fourth,

he rings over it the facificial bell: two other arms are broken off; but with the two remaining, he is drawing behind him a veil, which extinguishes the Sun, and involves the whole Universe in one undistinguished ruin. One of the titles of this tremendous Deity is BHAIRAVA, the horrisic, but his principal designation is Câl AGNI RUDRA.

Is the contemplation of the grand confummation of all created things flruck the mind of the initiated Brāhmen with awe; the uninformed mass of people would not be less affected with the dreadful appearance and implacable character of this Deity. To appease and reconcile so tremendous a Being, would naturally become an object of the greatest necessity and anxiety; the personified metaphor of all-devouring time presented to their eyes a divinity delighting in blood and slaughter; the zeal of worshippers encreased in proportion to their terrors. The unenlightened mind dwells with disturbed and anxious attention upon horrors of its own creation; and superstition takes its form and colour from the objects which excite it: hence arose those bloody rites, those consecrated cruelties, and those astonishing penances, which not only obtained in India, but pervaded almost every part of the ancient world. Thus a new superstition was grafted upon the old, as much adapted by its vain terrors to degrade the human mind, as the former had been to corrupt it.

IF it was intended to instruct mankind in the hieroglyphic language of former ages, and to shew them how absolutely necessary it was, to make a facrifice of their vices and depraved appetites, before they could render themselves acceptable to the Deity, could any way be more natural than to typify those vices by animals whose propensities are analogous to them; and by the allegorical slaughter of them before the altar of the Deity, to denote the facrifice required. To the uninformed multitude such an hiero-

glyphic would feem to prescribe the actual facrifice of the animal. The emblematical apparatus of Câl and Ca'li' would confirm them in the error; and, when once the idea was admitted, that the blood of animals was acceptable to the Deity, fanaticism would soon demand human victims. Humiliation and presents appease earthly princes; but the divinity of fanaticism was supposed to require more costly offerings, and the severest mortifications, which inventive zeal could suggest; a false pride, and vain ambition of displaying superior sanctity, excited an emulation amongst the deluded zealots, which stealed the heart against pain, and supported the sufferers under all their self-insticted torments. This artificial insensibility acquired the reputation of inspired fortitude; and the admiration of ignorant multitudes repaid the fanatick for his voluntary tortures.

Such were the disorders, which arose out of the worship of emblematical Deities.

THE doctrines of the Saivas feem to have extended themselves over the greatest portion of mankind; they spread amongst remote nations, who were ignorant of the origin and meaning of the rites they adopted: and this ignorance may be considered as the cause of the mixture and confusion of images and ideas, which characterised the mythology of the antient Greeks and Romans.

In fact, foreign nations could only copy the outward figns and ceremonies: they could not be admitted beyond the threshold of the temple: the adytum was impenetrable to them. Câl and Ca'li' assumed various names: Câl became Cronos, Moloch, Saturn, Dis, Pluto, and Typhon; Ca'li' became Hecate, Proserpine and Diana, who was worshipped with bloody facrifices at Tauris. It was to the barbarians, that the Greeks

were referred by their own writers, to learn and understand the names and origin of their Deities.

SIVA, in his character of the Creative Power, became the Zeus Trior-Thalmos, Jupiter and Osiris; his confort Bhava'ni became Juno, Venus, Cybele, Rhea, the Syrian Goddess, the armed Pallas, Isis, Ceres, and Anna Perenna. This multiplication of Deities arose from the ignorance of foreign nations as to the source of the superstition which they adopted, and the original meaning of the symbols; they supplied their want of information by sables congenial to their own national character and manners: hence arose those contradictions, which made their mythology a labyrinth of consuson.

WHEN the Saivas intended to ascribe particularly, to the object of their worship, the benefits arising from any operation of nature, they decorated the image with suitable emblems, and assigned to the Deity a corresponding title.

For instance S'ANCARA (which signifies the benefactor,) is a title of one of those forms of S'IVA or CÂL. To him the gratitude of the Saivas attributed the blessings which are derived from the waters of the Ganges, which rolls its fertilizing stream through various countries, bestowing life and happiness on millions of created beings.

THEY therefore adorned the image of CAL, with emblems applicable to the mountain, whence that stupendous river flows.

As this beneficial stream makes its way from the tops of that mountain through the creepers and underwood, which feem to obstruct its passage to

the plains, it is represented to flow from the head of the Deity through his jatá or clotted hair: and as tigers, elephants, and serpents, insest the skirts of the mountains, he is surrounded with serpents, his lower clothing is the skin of the elephant, and he is seated on that of the tiger. He is likewise called Ni'L-Cant'ha (blue neck) from the appearance which the clouds assume when arrested in their course, by the overtopping summit of the mountain.

HE has likewise the title of Giri I's'WARA, or lord of mountains; and this union of the attributes of S'ava, with those of the mountain, is more distinctly pointed out in his marriage with Pa'RVATI, a derivative from parvat, a mountain.

As the image of S'IVA, in this character, was an object of local veneration, its worship was probably confined to the banks of the Ganges. Had it reached the nations of Europe, he would have been considered as a distinct and separate divinity, and ranked amongst the river Gods. This symbol is admitted by the Vaishnavas: but in order to ascribe this inestimable gift to VISHNU, and to affert his superiority over S'IVA, they insist that the river first slowed out of Vaicunt'ba (the heaven of VISHNU) from the seet of VISHNU; that when it had descended upon the mountain Cailás, it was received by S'IVA, and placed on his head amongst his plaited locks.

ON JAGAN-NA'TH, &c.

THE temple of JAGAN-NA'TH is a famous refort for pilgrims of all fects, for it is revered by all, it is a converging point where all the contending parties unite in harmony with each other. What is the fecret spring of

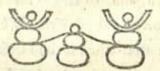
this concurrence of fentiment in fects, otherwise so irreconcilable to each other? What is intended by a representation, so extraordinary, of the Deity of the place: a figure, that resembles nothing in the heavens above, or the earth beneath, or in the waters under the earth.

THESE questions will naturally arise upon a view of the accompanying drawing, taken from a large picture, brought from the temple, in possession of Raja Paras'u Ram.

and distribute the she saw there are

It is a representation of the SNA'N JATRA, when the images, stripped of their ornaments, are bathed. But it is this unadorned condition of the image, that leads to the discovery of the mystery.

THE Pranava, or mystical character which represents the name of the Deity, is thus expressed 30. By making a cypher thereof in this manner 3 e filling them up, and giving a body to the central and connecting part of the cypher, you have



FROM this cypher, they have made three distinct Idols: probably, to prevent the original allusion from being too obvious to the multitude. Subhadra's place is, however, always between the other two, for she represents the connecting participle of the cypher: the propriety of her being so situated is therefore evident; and, as the actual connection is dissolved, by the separation of the sigures into distinct idols, we see the reason of her being represented without arms.

CRISHNA, as PARAME'S WARA, is JAGAN-NA'TH, or Lord of the Universe; his half brother is BALRA'M, (a terrestrial appearance of SIVA); and SUBHADRA' is a form of Devi.

To me, it appears a stroke of refined policy, in the first founders of the temple, to present as an object of worship, the personification of the triliteral word which is held in reverence alike by all sectaries, and to give it a title, which each sect might apply to the object of its particular adoration. The intention of the foundation was evidently to render the temple a place of pilgrimage open to all sects, and to draw an immense revenue from the multifarious resort of devotees. The ornaments and apparel, with which they cover the image, conceal the real figure from the multitude, and give it an air of mystery: the sascination of mystery is well understood by the Brahmens.

JAGAN-NA'TH and BAL-RA'M have both the same form, to shew their identity, and their faces, have the respective colours of VISHNU and S'IVA. Considered in this point of view, this temple may be considered as the rallying point for the three great sects. It is upon this principle, that JAGAN-NA'TH, and BAL-RA'M appear sometimes with the attributes of GANE'S'A to shew, that it is one, and the same, Deity, who is worshipped, under so many names and forms.

ON CRISHNA.

WHEN the Vaishnavas separated themselves from the Saivas, they introduced a new symbol of the Sun under the name of CRISHNA, as a contrast to the horrid rites of Ca'll' which had so disgusted them.

CRISHNA, being an incarnation of VISHNU, is depicted with the fame characteristick complexion of dark azure to identify the Deity in the symbol.

THE Earth is represented as a Cow, the cow of plenty; and, as the planets were considered by the Hindus to be so many habitable Earths, it was natural to describe them by the same hieroglyphic; and, as the Sun directs their motions, surnishes them with light, and cherishes them with his genial heat, Crishna, the symbol of the Sun, was pourtrayed as an herdsman, sportive, amorous, and inconstant.

not be made to constitute and could suppress

THE twelve figns are represented as twelve beautiful Nymphs, the Sun's apparent passage from one to the other is described as the roving of the inconstant Crishna. This was probably the ground-work of JavaDe'va's elegant poem, the Gita Góvinda. It is evidently intended by the circular dance exhibited in the Rásijátrá On a moveable circle, twelve Crishnas are placed alternately with twelve Go'ris, hand in hand forming a circle; the God is thus multiplied to attach him to each respectively, to denote the Sun's passage through all the signs; and, by the rotary motion of the machine, the revolution of the year is pointed out.

CRISHNA obtains a victory on the banks of the Yamuna over the great ferpent Cállya Nága, which had poisoned the air, and destroyed the herds in that region.

This allegory may be explained upon the same principle as the exposition given of the destruction of the serpent Python by the arrows of Apollo. It is the Sun, which, by the powerful action of its beams, purifies the air and disperses the noxious vapours of the atmosphere.

BOTH in the Padma and Garuda, we find the ferpent Caliya, whom CRISHNA flew in his childhood, amongst the Deities " worshipped on this day; as the Pythian snake, according to CLEMENS, was adored with APOLLO at Delphi."

PERHAPS this adventure of CRISHNA, with the Cáliya Nága, may be traced on our sphere, for we find there Serpentarius on the banks of the heavenly Yamuná, the milky way, contending as it were with an enormous serpent, which he grasps with both his hands.

THE identity of the APOLLO NOMIOS and CRISHNA is obvious: both are inventors of the flute; and CRISHNA is disappointed by Tulasi in the same manner as APOLLO was deluded by DAPHNE, each nymph being changed to a tree; hence the Tulasi is sacred to CRISHNA, as the Laurus was to APOLLO.

THE story of NAREDA, visiting the numerous chambers of CRISHNA'S feraglio, and finding CRISHNA every where, appears to allude to the universality of the Sun's appearance at the time of the Equinoxes, there being then no part of the Earth where he is not visible in the course of the twenty-four hours.

THE Demons, sent to destroy CRISHNA, are perhaps no more than the monsters of the sky, which allegorically may be said to attempt in vain to obstruct his progress through the Heavens.

MANY of the playful adventures of CRISHNA's childhood are possibly mere poetical embellishments to complete the picture.

PERHAPS the character of CRISHNA should be regarded in a two-fold light; in one as the symbol of the Sun, in the other as an allegorical representation of the rise and progress of the doctrines of the persecuted Vaishnavas, from the infancy of the sect till its full establishment. Cansa is represented as a S'aiva; he appears to have persecuted the sect of Vishnu: but that oppressed sect seems to have multiplied under persecution, till the increase of their power enabled them to overthrow their oppressors; and, finally, to establish the doctrines of Vishnu upon the ruins of the religion of S'IVA.

OF CA'RTICE'YA, THE SUPPOSED MARS OF INDIA.

HE is represented as a warrior with fix faces: he is armed with arrows and spears, and he is drawn riding upon a peacock. I suppose this figure to be an emblem of the Sun, invented by the worshippers of the Ling, when they first separated into a distinct sect; or, in the hieroglyphical language of the Brabmens, when he was produced from the seed which Maha'-De'va shed upon the Earth, after he had been separated from Bhava'ni', with whom he had been in strict union a thousand years. My supposition however contradicts the present received opinions of the Hindus; for they do not consider Ca'rtice'va as the Sun. But, if we examine the sigure, we shall find that it can only be applied to the Sun; and it will be found to agree in all its parts.

THE Hindus divide the year into fix Ritus or seasons, in each of which the Sun appears with a different aspect; the fix faces of Carrice'va are intended to express this variety of aspect. There are fix stars in the lunar constellation Critica; and, as he derives his name from that Nacshatra, those stars are represented as his nurses, one for each month. Probably the symbol was invented either when the Sun was itself in that lunar constellation, or in the month Cartica when the Moon was full in

Critica. His arrows and missile weapons represent his rays; the Apollo of the Greeks had also his bow and quiver of arrows. The worship of Ca'retica'ya takes place on the last day of Cartica, as preparatory to military expeditions, which ought to commence according to Menu in the month Agrabayana, the Sun being more propitious at that period for such undertakings.

THE fetting Sun feems followed by the host of Heaven, but how can this be expressed in a single hieroglyphical figure? It was done by giving him a peacock for his Vában, or vehicle, in which the tail of this beautiful bird, studded with eyes and expanded behind the God, pourtrays the firmament spangled with stars. The Egyptians sometimes represented the Sun in the character of a warriour, and he is faid to have been addressed as fuch in the mysteries. But CARTICE'VA is not now considered by the Hindus as the Sun: to account for this, I suppose, that whenever any new fect arose amongst the Hindus in former ages, the leaders invented new fymbols exclusively peculiar to themselves, with a view to render their separation from the parent stock more complete, and to mark their worship with diffinguishing characters. This practice would give rise to various and different representations of the same object; and, in course of time, as the heat of religious animolities cooled, these various symbols would come to be confidered as separate Divinities, and be all blended in one mass of fuperstition. Thus the Sun, under the name of CA'RTICE'YA, becomes the god of war; and, under the name of CRISHNA, the shepherd god of Mat'burá and Vrindávana. The Sun is now separately worshipped under the names of Surya and A'ditya.

OF INDRA, THE EMBLEM OF THE VISIBLE HEAVENS.

I AM led to believe, that many of the fables, inferted in the Puranas, were invented, either after the real meaning of an hieroglyphic had been loft, to conceal that ignorance; or purposely to mislead the mass of people and prevent too curious and close an inquiry.

INDRA is described like ARGUS, covered with eyes; to account for this, the sable relates, that INDRA, having seen the beautiful wife of a certain Rishi, * was anxious to be more intimate with her; but the watchful husband prevented the intercourse, by arriving, unseasonably for the god; the enraged saint uttered an imprecation, and wished that the god might be covered all over with representations of what had been the object of his desires; the curse took immediate effect. The god, sull of shame, repented, and by his entreaties, at last, prevailed on the holy man, to mitigate the curse, by changing the marks of his shame, to as many eyes.

I CONSIDER this fable, as an instance of the foregoing observation: for INDRA is a personification of the atmosphere, and visible Heavens; and of course, the eyes, with which he is covered, describe the stars. The rain-bow is the bow of INDRA. The water spout is the trunk of his elephant; thunder, lightning and rain, and every phenomenon of the atmosphere, belong to his department; and like the JUPITER of the Greeks and Romans, he has his Heaven, a mansion of sensual delights, and enjoyment.

OF JUPITER AND EUROPA, AND JUPITER AND LEDA.

THE Hindus have eight representations of semale figures, which, except in sex, exactly resemble the Deity, of which each is a S'asti, or power,

[.] AHILYA' wife of GO TAMA.

with the same attributes and vehicle: Ma'he'swari is the Sasti of Mahe'sa, or S'IVA; Bra'hmi or Brahma'n, of Brahma'; Na'ra'yani', of Nara'yena; Aindri, of Indra; Cauma'ri, of Ca'rtice'ya; Va'ra'hi, of Vishnu, in the Varaha Avalar; Narasinhi, of Vishnu, in the Narasinha Avalar; and Apara'jita', a form of Bhava'ni', the semale principle: this last may be the aphrodite of the Greeks. It is probable, that the representation of Ma'he's wari, or a semale S'IVA, riding on a white bull, may have given rise to the story of Europa's rape: and the representation of Bra'hmi, or the semale Brahma', with the swan, may, in like manner, have occasioned the fable of Jupiter and Leda. These explanations were perhaps invented by the Greeks to account for symbols, of the meaning of which they were ignorant.

ANNA PERENNA.

THE Romans themselves were ignorant of the history of this goddess, and the origin of her rites, although she was an object of their veneration and worship. From whence did this ignorance proceed? Was it that the memory of the institution was lost in its remote antiquity? Or was it an adoption of a foreign ritual, without adverting to its origin?

ACCORDING to some authors, she was the daughter of Belus, and sister of Dido, who sled to Battus, king of the isle of Malta, after the death of her sister, when Hierbas, king of the Getuli, attempted to take Carthage. Not sinding herself safe with Battus, on account of the threats of Hierbas, she sled to Laurentum in Italy, where Æneas was settled: he met her on the banks of the Numicius, and received her into his palace, treating her with the respect due to her quality. Lavianta considered her as a rival, and sought her destruction; but Anna, being

admonished of this in a dream, fled to the river Numicius, whereof she was made a Nymph, as she told those who sought for her, and ordered them to call her in future Anna Perenna, because she should for ever remain under those waters.

Amne perenne latens Anna Perenna vocor.

Ovid. Fast. Lib. 3d. Vers. 653.

THE Albans instituted rejoicings on the banks of the river, with dancing and feasing; and the Romans, in imitation of them, did the same on the banks of the Tiber. The dances and sports were very indecent and lascivious. Ovid has described these festivals, which were celebrated on the 15th March: they sacrificed to her for long life; annure et perennare.

It is probable that this legend was a popular tradition, merely local, peculiar to the Romans and Albans; but it was not the fole conjecture, for, according to OVID, some supposed her to be the Moon, some THEMIS, and others Io; some imagined she was the daughter of ATLAS, and some took her for AMALTHEA, who nursed JUPITER in his infancy; while others conceived her to be an old woman of Bovilla, who was supposed to have sed the people of Rome in very antient times when oppressed by samine, in a miraculous manner, and to have then sled and disappeared in the holy Aventine Mount, and in gratitude for this relief this sessival had been instituted by the Romans.

AMIDST so many conjectures, perhaps we may at this distance of time discover the mystery at Benares, in Anna Pu'rn' a' De'vi', the Hindu Goddess of Abundance, whose name is derived from Anna (food), and Pú-

rha (abundant); let us regularly weigh each conjecture mentioned by Ovid. rejecting only the local flory of the deified fifter of Dipo, and we shall find none that is inapplicable to the Hindu goddess. 1st. The DIANA of the Romans was represented with a crescent on her forehead; it was her characteristic mark. The Hindu goddess, as being the consort of S'IVA or Cal, is decorated in like manner; this may account for her being confidered as the Moon. 2dly. The attributes of THEMIS, whether she is confidered as CERES, which was the supposition of CLEMENS of Alexandria, in his description of her obscene mysteries; or, as the goddess of justice, piety and virtue, as described by DIODORUS SICULUS, are equally applicable to Anna Pu'ana' De'vi'; the conformity of her name and office to the attributes of CERES is strikingly apparent. But, if THEMIS is justice, piety and virtue personified, the character will equally suit the confort of the god of justice, VRISHA ISWARA, and the lord of the facred bull DHERMA RA'JA'. 3dly. That she was Io, the daughter of INACHUS. under the form of a cow, is a supposition which will not be found inapplicable to Anna Pu'RNA' De'vi', when it is known that the Earth, fymbolized as the cow of plenty, is one of the forms of the Hindu goddefs. 4thly. That the was the daughter of ATLAS, MAIA who was beloved by JUPI-TER, is a conjecture for which a foundation may be traced in the Hindu goddess. Might not the name of MAYA or MAHA MAYA (the beloved confort of S'IVA) have given rife to this conjecture; the Hindu term being applied to fignify the mother, the great mother ! 5thly. The image of Anna Pu'rna' is represented fitting on a throne giving food with a golden ladle to an infant S'IVA, who stretches out his little hand to receive it. Is not the resemblance particularly striking between this representation, and the character of AMALTHEA, who nursed JUPITER, when an infant? Laftly, the tradition of her being the old woman of Bovilla, which Ovin himself seems inclined to adopt, is equally applicable to Anna

Pu'RNA De'vi, who, according to the Puranas, under the form of an old woman, miraculously fed Vya'sa muni, and his ten thousand Pupils, when reduced to the extremities of distress and famine by the anger of S'IVA, because Vya'sa had presumed to preser Vishnu to him.

It may not therefore be an unfounded conjecture, that the confort of S'IVA is the point in which all those opinions meet, and that they were founded on confined and confused traditions of the goddess of abundance.

DESCRIPTION OF ANNA PU'RNA' DE'VI', FROM THE ANNADA' CRIPA'.

SHE is of a ruddy complexion, her robe of various dies, a crescent on her forehead, she gives subsistence; she is bent by the weight of her full breasts; Bhava or S'Iva (as a child) is playing before her with a crescent on his forehead, she looks at him with pleasure, and seated (on a throne) relieves his hunger; all good is united in her, her names are Annada', Anna Pu'rna' De'vi', Bhava'ni' and Bha'Gavati'.

EXTRACTS.

Sunt quibus hæc luna est, quia mensibus impleat annum:

Pars Themin, Inachiam pars putat esse bovem.

Invenies, qui te Nymphen Atlantida dicant;

Teque Jovi primos, Anna, dedisse cibos.

Hæc quoque, quam referam, nostras pervenit ad aures

Fama: nec a verâ dissidet illa side.

Plebs vetus, et nullis etiamnum tuta tribunis,

Fugit; and in facri vertice montis abit.

Jam quoque, quem secum tulerant, desecerat illos

665

Victus, et humanis ulibus apta Ceres.
Orta suburbanis quædam fuit Anna Bovillis
Pauper, sed mundæ sedulitatis, anus.
Illa, levi mitra canos redimita capillos,
Fingebat tremula rustica liba manu.
Atque ita per populum sumantia mane solebat
Dividere. Hæc populo copia grata suit.
Pace domi sacta signum posuere Perennæ,
Quòd sibi desectis illa tulisset opem.

570

674 Ovid. Fast. Lib. 38.

naturities and financialcone

OF THE FOUR MONTHS SLEEP OF HORUS AND VISHNU.

THE Abbé PLUCHE (to whose ingenious work I am so much indebted) mentions two hieroglyphics, one taken from the *Isiac* table, and the other described upon a Mummy. They both relate to the sleep of Horus.

THE one represents a couch in the form of a lion, with Horus swaddled up and sleeping on it. Beneath the couch are four jars: an Anubis is standing by the side of the couch; and an Isis at the head of it, in the act of awakening Horus.

WHEN ANUBIS, or the Dog Star, rose heliacally, the Egyptians confidered it as a warning to them of the approach of the inundation, during which the operations of hulbandry were suspended; this suspension was deemed a period of rest: to express that inaction, Horus was described as swaddled up, unable to use his arms, and sleeping upon this lion-formed couch. Anubis is putting him to rest, because the rising of the Dog Star

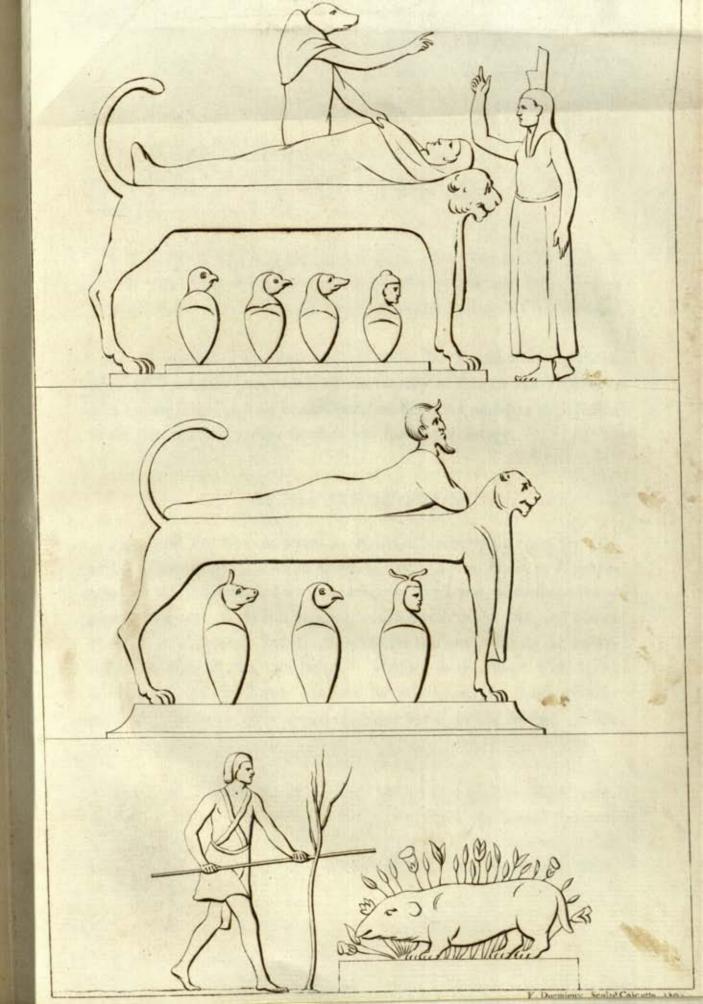
proclaimed that ceffation of labour. The four jars denote the four months. When by the operations of nature the water has subsided, and the river has been reduced within its banks, labour is resumed, and Horus is awakened by Isis or personified nature.

In the other hieroglyphic, we have the same couch with Horus swaddled up, but in the act of turning himself: there are only three jars under this couch to denote, that this action of turning himself to sleep on his other side takes place at the commencement of the third month. This interpretation I have given, because what follows, respecting the sleep of VISHNU, seems to justify it. Let us therefore turn to the Hindu representation of the four months sleep of VISHNU or HERI.

On the eleventh day of the enlightened half of the lunar month A'farb, VISHNU begins his repose on the serpent Sésha. On the same day of the bright half of the lunar month Bhádra, he turns on bis side; and on this day the Hindus celebrate the Jal Yátrá, or the retiring of the waters. On the eleventh day of the bright half of the lunar month Cártica, he is awakened and rises from his sleep of sour months.

THE allusion will be made perfectly clear, when it is known that water is considered as one of the forms of Vishnu.

THE water, rising till it covers the winding mazes of the river's course, is personified by VISHNU sleeping upon the serpent Sésha, whose hundred heads are the numerous channels which discharge the waters into the sea. As long as it continues to rise, he sleeps on one side. When the inundation, having risen to its height, begins to subside, he turns on the other side. When the waters have run off, and the winding banks of the river are





completely cleared of the fwoln waters of the inundation, he is faid to have arisen from his sleep, being invoked, and awakened with this Mantra or incantation.

"THE clouds are dispersed, the full moon will appear in persect bright"ness, and I come in hope of acquiring purity, to offer the fresh flowers
"of the season; awake from thy long slumber, awake Lord of all Worlds."

LET us compare the *Hmdu* legend with the *Egyptian* hieroglyphic, and I think no doubt can remain of the identity of Horus and Vishnu or Heri; and if this position be admitted, we shall find ourselves in possession of the Key to the *Egyptian*, *Grecian*, and *Roman* mythology.

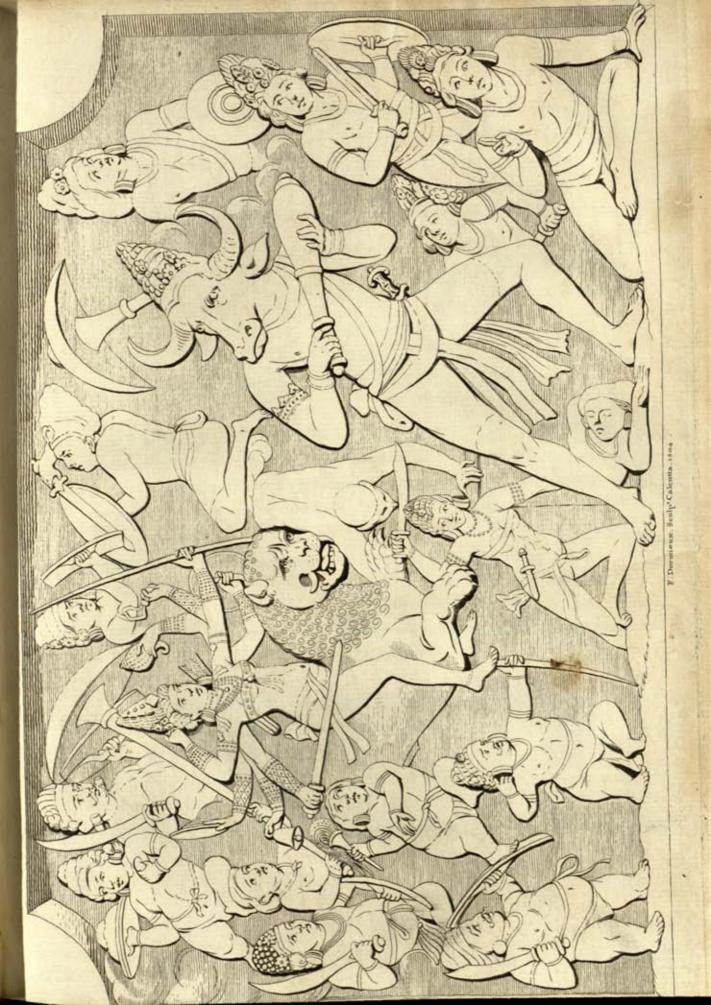
OF THE DURGA' PU'JA'.

THE Abbé Pluche mentions an Egyptian hieroglyphic from the Islace table. Horus, armed with an arrow, is slaying a river horse, or Hippopotamos, which is surrounded with the leaves of the Lotos, and other aquatic plants. He says, "By this monster, which dwells in the Nile, and comes out of it to lay waste and devour whatever it meets with, we can understand nothing but the inundation." Horus is the same with Here or Vishnu. If the Saivas admitted in this country a similar victory over the inundation, they would substitute Stva, or his consort, for the Vaisbnava symbol Horus.

THE sphinx, an emblem of the Sun's passage through LEO and VIRGO, would suggest the idea of decorating CA'LI', like the armed PALLAS, as VIRGO, attended by her Sinb or Lion, who is S'IVA himself in that form; and they ascribe to her a victory over the monster Mabish Assura,

a giant, with the head of a buffalo: this animal delights in water; and when he comes out of it, is as destructive by laying waste and devouring the harvest, as the Hippopotamos; the latter animal not being a native of Hindustan, it was natural to supply its place with one which had fimilar characteristicks. If the Hindu religion was brought from Egypt into India, the importers of it would fee the fame phenomenon of the annual rifing of the river; but they would observe, that in this country it was accompanied with heavy rains, thunder, lightning and storms of wind, an apparent war of the elements. Hence the buffalo-headed symbol of the . inundation was erected into a giant at the head of a vast army, warring against the Gods: the novelty of these phenomena to the first comers would fuggest to them this poetical personification. The title borne by Ca'll' in this character is DURGA, or rather DURGATI Na's'INI, the remover of difficulties; as she is a form of CA'LI', she has the same bloody rites.

THE Abbé mentions the Canopus, as a jar or pitcher of water, intended to make the people acquainted with the exact progress and increase of the inundation: he adds, that they used to mark these jars with the figure T or a small cross. It to express the increase and swelling of the river. Canob is the Egyptian word, which is rendered Canopos by the Greeks; the information, which this seems intended to convey, was so particularly necessary to the Egyptians, that it is no wonder, it should in course of time cease to be considered as a mere sign, and acquire a place amongst the Deities themselves. The word Canob by the analogy of the Sanserit language becomes Cumbb, which signifies a jar or vase it gives name, in the Hindu Zodiac, to the sign Aquarius. This Cumbb, G'hata, or jar, is the principal object in the celebration of the Hindu worship. It is considered as almost the Deity itselfs.





It cannot be dispensed with; while the image of Durga' may be omitted entirely. The Vaishnavas use the sacred jar, which they mark with several crosses in this manner. The Saivas mark the jar with a double triangle, thus : one triangle signifies S'IVA, uniting in himself the three great attributes: the other triangle is his confort with the same character and attributes. The worshippers of the Saction female principle mark the jar with this sigure. These marks are called jantra: they are in sact hieroglyphic characters; and there is a vast variety of them. The above are only mentioned here, because of their use in this Paja, and as they distinguish three principal sects of the Hindus.

This coincidence between the Hindu ceremonies and the Egyptian figures, is remarkably striking. They appear to me to explain each other: and we can scarce doubt of the identity, when we consider that this ceremony takes place at the autumnal equinox, at which time the season of storms and inustiation is over, and they are supposed to have been subdued, during the Sun's passage through the signs Leo and Virgo.

ON THE HU'LL OF THE HINDUS, AND THE HILARIA OF THE ROMANS.

THE Romans celebrated the Hilaria at the vernal Equinox, in honour of the Mother of the Gods. It was a festival which was continued for several days, with great display of pomp and rejoicing: it began the eighth day before the Calends of April, or the 25th of March; the statue of Cybele was carried about in procession, and the attending crowds assumed to themselves whatever rank, character, or dress, their fancy led them to prefer: it

was a kind of masquerade, full of mirth and frolick. In fact, it was the Earth, under the name of Cybele, which was worshipped at the commencement of that genial season, when she receives from the Sun those vivisying rays, which are so adapted to the production of fruits and flowers. Let this ceremony be compared with the Hindu celebration of the Hall, at the same period of the year. The epithet of Purple is constantly given to the spring by the Roman poets, in allusion to the blossoms, which nature, as it were in sport, scatters over the Earth with such variety and prosussion. The Hindus design the same idea in the purple powder (Abir), which they throw about at each other with so much sportive pleasantry: the objects of worship with the Hindus are the Earth and Fire; that genial warmth, which pervades all nature at that period of the year: the licentiousness of the songs and dances, at this season, was intended to express the effects of that warmth on all animated objects.

THE Hindus have likewise their masquerading processions, in which Gods and Goddesses, Rajas and Ranis, are represented; and the ceremonies are concluded, by burning the past or deceased year, and welcoming the renovation of nature.

OF THE VASTU PU'JA' OF THE HINDUS, AND THE VESTA OF THE ROMANS.

On the last day of Paush, the Hindus make sweetmeats, with Til, or sesamum: it is therefore called Tiliasancrant. It is the day, when land-holders worship the Earth and Fire. The sect of Siva sacrifice a sheep to the Earth; and the Vaishnavas offer up their bloodless oblations to fire. The ceremony is called the Vastu Puja. Vastu is the habitable Earth. A great Raja was called Vastu Purush; the expression is used by a raiat

to his zemindar, as a title of the highest respect. I think, that, in the name of the ceremony and in the objects of worship, may be traced the Goddess Vesta of the Romans: the Goddess of Nature, under whose name they worshipped the Earth and Fire.

THE FABLE OF BIR BHADR INVENTED BY THE S'AIVAS TO EXALT THEIR OPINIONS AND SECT.

This fable, I conceive, is descriptive of an attempt to abolish the worship of the male and semale symbols; of the struggles of the contending sects; and (as it is the nature of fanaticism, to increase, and spread, in proportion to the opposition raised against it) of the sinal establishment, and extension of that worship. It seems a story invented by the Saivas, to shew the imbecility of their opponents and to exalt their own doctrines.

Dacsha celebrated a yajnya, to which he invited all the Dévatás, except his fon-in-law Siva. His confort the Goddess, being hurt at this exclusion, went into the affembly, and remonstrated, but in vain; she expired with vexation upon the spot. Siva, upon hearing this, throws his Jetá, or plaited hair, upon the ground, and from that produces Bir Bhadr, a furious being armed with a trident, who immediately attacks, and disperses the whole affembly; puts a stop to the sacrifice; and cuts off the head of Dacsha. Siva took up the body of his deceased consort, and placing it upon his head, in a fit of madness, danced up and down the Earth, threatening all things with destruction. Vishnu, at the request of the other Dévatás, with his Chacra, cut the body of Satí, into sity-one pieces, which Siva, in his frantic dancing, scattered in different parts of the Earth. Each place, where a part fell, became a place of worship, dedicated to the semale Power: and, the frenzy of Siva subsiding, he ordained,

that the Ling a should likewise be worshipped, at each of those places; and Dacsha, on condition of embracing the doctrine of Siva, was restored to life, degraded with the head of a goat, instead of his own. I should imagine, that the furious Bir Bhadr produced by Siva was a vast body of fanatics, raised by the Brahmens of that sect, who might, at that time, have been both popular, and powerful; probably, this was a vast body of fanatic Sannyasis, interested in the dispute by personal motives, as well as instigated by their Brahmens.

The attempt to abolish the worship failed, and served to establish it firmer, and extend it farther, than ever. The Gods themselves are represented as the actors, instead of their votaries; but it may allude to some commotion, that really happened. Probably the heads of those seets, which had introduced this symbolic worship, were alarmed at the progress of it, and at the effects produced on the morals of the people: they wished to abolish it, when it had taken root too deeply; and, as they had introduced it, Siva is described as the son-in-law, and Sati as the daughter of Dacsha.

ON THE VENERATION PAID TO KINE.

This superstition appears to me to have arisen from the humanity of the first legislators, to prevent the horrid practices which were prevalent in the antient world, and which exist to this day in Abyssinia: I mean the savage custom of devouring the slesh of the living animal, torn from it while roaring with anguish and expiring in protracted agony.

To eradicate a practice fo detestable and dreadfully cruel, they might

consider difficult, if not impossible in the then existing state of society, without interweaving the preservation of so useful an animal, with the indispensable duties of religion. They therefore rendered it sacred.

THE Bull was made the emblem of Justice, the vehicle of S'IVA; and the Cow, a form of BHA'VANI, and the emblem of the Earth. A mere civil institute, might have been deemed inadequate to work the intended reform. But an indispensable duty, ensorced by all the sacred obligations of religion, was thought more likely to produce the effect; as having more hold upon the human mind: especially when that religion was promulgated as the immediate revelation of the Deity.

MANKIND naturally rush into contrary extremes under the impulse of religious zeal; and the animal, which had been the subject of voracious cruelty, became the object of religious veneration and worship.

When these animals were thus exalted, the slaughter of them was considered as a sacrilege: it was a natural consequence. But superstition did not stop there; the dung came to be considered as pure; the Hindus use it diluted with water, and mixed with earth, to purify their shops and houses: the spot, on which they eat, is plastered with this composition; and the idols are purified by a mixture of the dung, urine, milk, curds, and butter of the animal; nay, a small quantity of the urine is daily sipped by some: every part of the animal is dedicated to some divinity with appropriate invocations; and what originated in policy, has ended in gross superstition. The horrid repasts of the antient world are frequently alluded to. It is said of Orpheus, Cadibus et vietu sado deterruit: notwithstanding which, the Grecians are reproached by Julius Firmicus with perpetrating these horrid repasts, as part of the ceremony in the Dionysiacs—Vivum Lanians

dentibus taurum, crudeles epulas annuis commemorationibus excitantes;
—and again—Illic, in orgiis Bacebi, inter ebrias puellas et vinolentos senes, cum Scelerum Pompa procederet, alter, nigro amietu teter; alter, ostenso angue terribilis; alter, cruentus ore, dum viva Pecoris membra discerpit. Jul. Firmic. De errore prosanarum Religionum. This horrid customi
was very antient; and I suppose, with Mr. Bruce, that the prohibitions in
Deuteronomy were particularly levelled at this exectable practice; and this
evidence, I think, strongly corroborates my supposition. The Egyptians seems
to have extended this policy to sheep and goats: for the ram was worthipped at the vernal equinox, and the goat was worthipped at Memphis.

REMARKS ON THE FOREGOING ESSAY. BY H. T. COLEBROOKE, Esq.

SEVERAL points, relative to the religious ceremonies of the Hindus, and their mythology, which the preceding Essay has touched upon, seem to require elucidation, independently of the purpose, for which they have been there mentioned. The following remarks are therefore subjoined, with a view of adding some information on those subjects.

P. 68. The eight S'actis, or energies of as many Deities, are also called Mátris or mothers. They are named BRA'HMI, &c. be ause they issued from the bodies of BRA'HMA and the other gods respectively.

[&]quot; RAYA MUCUTA on the Ameracofba.

In some places, they are thus enumerated: BRA'HMI', MA'HE'S WARI,
AINDRI', VA'RA'HI', VAISHN'AVI', CAUMA'RI', CHA'MUNDA', and CHARCHICA'. However, some authorities reduce the number to seven; omiting CHA'MUNDA' and CHARCHICA'; but inserting CAUVE'RI'.

PRAYERS are addressed to the Mátris on various occasions; especially in the Cavachas, or defensive incantations. I shall cite two by way of example; and subjoin extracts from the Márcahleya purána, descriptive of these goddesses.

"MAY BRAHMA'NI, conferring the benefit of all benedictions, protect me on the east; and Narayan'i, on the fouth-east, for the sake of realising every wish; Ma'he's'wari' too, on the south, rendering every thing auspicious; Cha'mun'da', on the south-east, discomfitting all enemies; and, on the west, Cauma'ri', armed with her lance and slayer of soes: on the north-west, Apara'jita', the beauteous giver of Victory; on the north, Va'ra'hi', granter of boons; and on the north-east, Na'ra-sinhi', the banisher of terrour. May these mothers, being eight Deities and active powers, desend me."

ANOTHER incantation fimply enumerates the same eight goddesses; and proceeds thus: "may these and all Mátris guard me with their respective weapons, on all quarters and on every point."

In the Devi mahatmya, the affembling of the Matris to combat the demons is thus described. The energy of each god, exactly like him, with the same form, the same decoration, and the same vehicle, came to fight against the demons. The Sasti of BRAHMA, girt with a white cord and bearing a hollow gourd, arrived on a car yoked with swans; her title is

BRAHMA'NI. MA'HE'S WARI' came riding on a bull, and bearing a trident, with a vast serpent for a ring, and a crescent for a gem. CAUMARY bearing a lance in her hand, and riding on a peacock, being Ambicá in the form of CARTICE'YA, came to make war on the children of DITI. The S'asti named VAISHN'AVI also arrived, fitting on an eagle, and bearing a conch, a difcus, a club, a bow, and a fword, in her feveral hands. The energy of HARI, who assumed the unrivalled form of the holy boar, likewise came there, assuming the body of Va'RA'HI'. NA'RASINHI' too arrived there embodied in a form precifely similar to that of NRISINHA, with an erect mane, reaching to the hoft of stars. AINDRI' came, bearing the thunderbolt in her hand, and riding on the king of elephants, and in every respect like INDRA, with a hundred eyes. Lastly, came the dreadful energy named CHANDICA', who fprung from the body of DE'vi', horrible, howling like a hundred shakals: she, furnamed, APARA'JITA', the unconquered goddess, thus addressed Is'A'NA, whose head is encircled with his dusky braided locks.'

The story, which is too long for insertion in this place, closes with these words: 'Thus did the wrathful host of Matris slay the demons.'

In the Uttara Calpa of the same Purána, the Mátris are thus described.

'Cha'mun'da' standing on a corpse, Va'ra'hi' sitting on a buffalo, AinDri' mounted on an elephant, Vaishn'avi' borne by an eagle, Ma'he's'Wari' riding on a bull, Cauma'ri' conveyed by a peacock, Bra'hmi'
carried by a swan, and Apara'jita' revered by the universe, are all Mátris endowed with every faculty.'

IT may be proper to notice, that CHA'MUN'D'A, CHARCHICA', and CHAN'DICA', are all forms of PA'RVATI'. According to one legend.

CHAMUNDA' sprung from the frown of PARVATI, to slay the demons CHANDA and MUNDA. According to another, the mild portion of PA'R-VATI' issued from her side, leaving the wrathful portion, which constitutes CA'LI' or the black goddess.

CAUVE'RI' is the energy of CUVE'RA, the deformed god of riches. NA'-RAYAN'I', mentioned by Mr. PATERSON, and also in the prayers or incantations above cited, is the same with VAISHN'AVI'.

P. 69. Anna-pu'rn'a' de'vi', or the goddess who fills with food, is the beneficent form of Bhava'ni'; and very similar to Lacshmi' or the goddess of abundance, though not the same Deity. She is described, and her worship is inculcated, in some of the Tantras; but not in the Purañas, so far as I can learn: and the legends, concerning her, are not numerous. She has a temple at Benares, situated near that of Vis'we's wara.

In addition to Mr. Paterson's quotations, it may be observed, that Silius Italicus (Punic. 8, v. 28, 184) makes the nymph, who was worshipped in Italy, to have been Anna, the sister of Dido: and Macrobius says (Sat. 1, c. 12), sacrifices, both publick and private, were offered by the Romans to Anna perenna; ut annare, perennareque, commode heeat.

PERHAPS ANNA-PU'RN'A' may bear affinity to ANNONA. Certainly this term, either in its literal sense, or as a personification (Spence's Polymetis. dial. 10), is nearer to the Sanscrit anna, food; than to its supposed root annus, a year.

P. 74. THE Jala yatra, here mentioned, is not universally or generally celebrated; and accordingly it is not noticed in various treatifes on the

ralendar of Hindu feasts and holidays. The Vishau d'bermoitara, cited in the Madana ratna, does indeed direct, that, on this day (11th Bhádra in the bright fortnight), a jar of water, with certain other specified articles, be given to a priest; and the Bhawishya requires, that Jana'rdana, or Vishau, be worshipped with appropriate prayers: but the ceremony, to which Mr. Paterson alludes, must be a different one; and, if I am rightly informed, a sestival, which bears the designation mentioned by him (Jala yátrá), is celebrated at the temple of Jaganna'r'ha, and perhaps at some other places.

P. 77. At most festivals, no less than at that of Durga', a jar of water is placed, and consecrated by prayers, invoking the presence of the deity or deities who are on that occasion worshipped: adding also invocations to Gangá and the other holy rivers. When the celebration of the sestival is completed, the holy water, contained in the jar, is employed by the priests to sprinkle or to bathe the person, who commands and desrays the celebration.

Various yantras, or mystical figures and marks, are appropriated to the several Deities, and to the different titles of each Deity. Such figures are usually delineated on the spot, where a consecrated jar is to be placed. These yantras, which are supposed by superstitious Hindus to possess occult powers, are taught in great detail by the Tantras or Agama sastra; but seem to be unknown to the Védas and Puránas.

P. 78. THE Holica is said, in some Purana, to have been instituted by the king Ambari's ha (the great grandson of Bhagi'rat'ha), according to instructions from Na'reda, for the purpose of counteracting a semale demon named D'hund'ha', whose practice it was to destroy children. In

its origin, this festival does not seem to have had any connexion with the vernal equinox, nor with the close of the year; but with the close of winter and the beginning of Vasanta, or the Indian spring. However, it now corresponds with the end of the lunar year, and the approach of the equinox.

P. 79. The Tila soneranti, or day on which the sun passes from Dbz-nush into the sign Mucara, is the sessival of the winter solstice. It must have been so fixed, at the period when the Indian calendar for the solar year was reformed, and the origin of the ecliptick was referred to the first degree of Mesha. It derives its name from the ordained use of tila or seed of Indian sefamum, six different ways, in sood, ablutions, gifts, and offerings: or, according to a vulgar explanation, it is so called, because thenceforward the days increase at the rate of a tila or grain of sesamum in each day. A similar testival is regulated by the lunar month; and has several times shifted its day. It is kept on the twelsth of the bright half of Magba, according to the Vision d'herméstara; and on the eleventh, according to other authorities. Probably it once belonged to the first day of the lunar Migha.

THE Vastu plija, as an annual ceremony, is peculiar to D'baca and districts contiguous to that province: but is not practised in the western parts of Bengal; and, so far as I am informed, is altogether unknown in other parts of India. The word Vastu signifies, not the habitable earth in general, but the site of a house or other edifices in particular.

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EXTRACTS from the יגיט אייון אולשט, or "Essence of Logic,"

proposed as a small Supplement to Arabic and Persian

Grammar; and with a view to elucidate certain Points

connected with Oriental Literature.

By FRANCIS BALFOUR, Esq.

INTRODUCTION

A LTHOUGH the works of ARISTOTLE were translated into Arabic many centuries ago, and there be no doubt that the fystem of logic generally ascribed to him constitutes, at this time, the logic of all the nations of Asia who profess the Mahommedan faith, yet I do not find that this point has been directly confirmed by translations from the Arabic or Persian into the languages of Europe. At least none that I know of have appeared in India.

THE following extracts taken from a Persian translation of the Tebzeebul Mantik, or Essence of Logic, an Arabic treatise of considerable repute, seem to place this question beyond doubt, by their close coincidence in every point with the system referred to Aristotle.

To the logical system of this wonderful genius, modern philosophers of distinguished eminence, and amongst these, Lord Kaimes, have not hesitated to impute the blame of retarding the progress of science and improvement in Europe for two thousand years, by holding the reasoning faculty constrained and cramped by the setters of syllogism.

FROM some of the extracts contained in this paper, it will appear, 1st, That the mode of reasoning by Induction, illustrated and improved by the great Lord Verulam, in his Organum Novum; and generally considered as the cause of the rapid progress of science in later times, was perfectly known to Aristotle, and was distinctly delineated by him, as a method of investigation that leads to certainty or truth *; and 2dly, That Aristotle was likewise perfectly acquainted, not merely with the form of Induction, but with the proper materials to be employed in carrying it on— Facts and Experiments.

WE are therefore led to infer, that all the blame of confining the human mind for so long a time in chains by the forms of syllogism, cannot be fairly imputed to Aristotle; nor all the merit of enlarging it and setting it free, ascribed to Lord Verulam. The vast extent of Aristotle's learning and knowledge, and the singular strength and penetration of his mind having, naturally, encouraged him to undertake a complete analysis of all its powers, the doctrine of syllogism became, of course, a constituent and necessary part of his comprehensive system. And if succeeding philosophers attracted by its ingenuity and beauty, have deserted the substance in pursuit of the shadow, the pernicious consequences of this delusion, cannot, justly, be referred to him ‡.

aculty confronted and cramped by the trace of fyllegilm,

^{*} Vide the Section of Induction, and we begin brown and northway alice sould be and

⁺ Vide the Section of the matter of Syllogism. On the war to be a section of the matter of Syllogism.

[†] On the 6th of July 1803, when this paper was delivered to the Affatick Society, I had heard of Dr. Gillies's admirable exposition of the ethics and polities of Aristotle; but had never been fortunate enough to meet with it, or to know any thing of his sentiments on this question, until the 12th of November, when the accidental sale of a private library gave me an opportunity of purchasing it. From the perusal of this wonderful book, I have now the satisfaction to discover, that the conjectures which I had been led to draw from these scanty materials, are completely confirmed by the opinion of an author, who is probably better qualified than any preceding commentator on Aristotle's works to decide on this subject,—Vide Gillies's Aristotle, Vel I, page 68, 76, 78, 79, &c.

The discussion of these points, being in some degree curious, and not altogether unconnected with the pursuit of Oriental literature, may not be unacceptable to this Society. But taken in another view, I conceive that they may become in some respect useful. A scientific analysis of the reasoning faculty, delineating all its powers and operations, and affixing to each an appropriated form of expression, gives, naturally, to those who acquire it, a mode of thinking that is accurate and prosound; and establishes amongst the learned a peculiar style, more precise and enlightened than that which is employed by the multitude in the common transactions of life.

By affifting the Oriental student to attain this degree of improvement, I have flattered myself that these extracts may become useful. This is the motive that first induced me to take the trouble of translating them into English; and they are now submitted to the Society, not as a part of metaphysical learning, but as a more advanced stage of grammar and syntax; and therefore as a Supplement that may contribute to form a more complete system of Arabic and Persian Philology. Whilst grammar and syntax teach only generally the various forms of words and sentences, logic, proceeding surther, may be considered as the art of selecting words and arranging sentences into all the forms that are required, for expressing with precision, the different steps and operations of the reasoning faculty; and therefore as the bigbest and most important degree of classical improvement.

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الما ول در تعریف مشتمل برچهار فصل است فصل اول دردلالت فصل دوم در صفهوم فصل سیوم درکلیات جمسه فصل چها رم در تعریفات

بابدوم درحجت مشتهل برپنج نصل است فصل اول در تضيه فصل دوم در تقياس فصل سيوم دراستقرا فصل چهارم در تهيل فصل پنجم در تقسيم قياس بحسب ماده In the Name of God, the Compassionate, the Merciful!

EXTRACTS FROM THE TEHZEEBUL MANTIK.

THE CONTENTS.

PART I. OF DEFINITION.

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SECT. I. OF PROPOSITIONS.

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III. OF INDUCTION.

IV. OF ANALOGY.

V. OF THE DIVISION OF SYLLOGISMS ACCORDING TO THEIR MATTER.

من ليكن غير المقالي خنا محد فريسون في والله عالم

فصل ال وسقامه

مقده درلغت پیش کرده شده ودر اعطلاح مقده ان چیز است که خوتون است براوشروع درهرعلم بطریق بنای وشناسای و فهذا عادت اهل تصانیف بران جا ری شده که پیش از شروع اول فصلی جدا میارند و انراه عدمه نامندود ران سه چیزه ذکورمنیشود رسم العلم یعنی تعریف علم غایت العلم یعنی تایده علم موضوع العلم یعنی انچه دران علم ازعوارض ذاتی او بحث کنند چنانچه بدن انسان در علم طب و کلام در علم نحوو هعرف وحجت درعلم منطق

پس بدانکه علم یعنی مورت حاصل درعقل از دوحال بیرون نیست نقط حصول صورت شی است درعقل یا حصول صورت شی در عقل بادصول صورت شی در عقل باانعان یعنی ایقاع نسبت است اول تصور است وثانی تصدیقی اما تصور خواه در ک امر منعده ده باشد چنانچه تصور زید و عریادر ک چیزی باشد بانسبت غیرتامه چنانچه تصور غلام زید یا با نسبت تامه باشدلیکی جزییه نباشدانشایه باشد چنانچه تصور اضربیا نسبت جزییه باشد لیکی غیران عانی چنانچه در صورت وهم وشک

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THE PREFACE.

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A PREFACE in common language is that which is put first. Technically it is that which is necessary to the explanation of any science with clearness and perspecuity. It has therefore become an established custom with authors, previously to the introduction of their subject, to appropriate the first chapter to this purpose, calling it a Preface. Under this head are comprehended three different articles; 1st, The nature or description of science; 2d, The end or use of the science; 3d, The subject of the science; or those of its effential parts that are to be investigated or considered; such as the human body in medicine, words and sentences in grammar, and definition and demonstration in logic.

Accordingly let it be underflood, that knowledge, or images acquired by the mind, is of two kinds; either the simple impression of an object, or the production of an image by reflection, that is, by relation. The first is perception, the second intellection or judgment.

Perception is either the idea of a fingle object, such as the idea of Zeid; or of several objects, such as the idea of Zeid and OMAR. Or it may be the idea of an object standing in a relation that is imperfect; for example, the slave of Zeid; or in a relation that is perfect, in which case it must not be connected with a predicate, but without one, such as the exreb, (i. e.) beat thou. It may also be in construction with a predicate, provided that it imply no conclusion; as in the idea of conjecture and doubt.

الماته ديق چنانچه اعتقاد اوردن بااينه عني كه زيد قايم است يا اعتقاد اوردن باينه عني كه زيد قايم نيست

ومنقسم ميشون اين هردوبضر ورديعني بالبداهت بي قيام دليل بطرف ضروري يعني بدهي واكتساب بالنظر يعني نظري يس چهار قسيت حاصل ميشود تصور بديهي تصور نظري يعني

معلوم تصوري و مجهول تصوري

تصديق بديهي وتصديق نظري يعثي

معلوم تصديقي و

مجهول تصديقي

اما معلوم تصوري چنانجه تصور حرارت و برود

و مجهول تصوري چنانجه تصور حقيقت ملك وجن

ومعلوم تصديقي چنانجه تصديق اينهعني كه انتاب روشن است و مجهول تصديقي چنانجه اينهعني كه عالم حادث است وصانع موجود است

ونظردراصطالاح ايشان مالحظه معقول است يراي تحصيل مجهول يعني مالاحظه معلوم تصوري است و معلوم تصديقي براي اكتساب مجهول تصوري ومجهول تصديقي و كاهي واقعي ميشود درنظر مذكور خطا INTELLECTION or judgment confists in giving affent to some proposition, such as "Zeid is standing," or "Zeid is not standing."

EACH of those, namely, perception and intellection, are necessarily divided into two kinds, viz. Those acquired by intuition without any previous argument or proof, and therefore called intuitive; and those acquired by investigation and reasoning, and therefore called demonstrable. We have therefore established four distinctions, viz. perceptions intuitive, and perceptions demonstrable: or in other words,

- 1. The known perceptible.
- 2. The unknown perceptible; and intellection or truth intuitive, and intellection or truth demonstrable; in other words,
 - 1. The known demonstrable:
 - 2. The unknown demonstrable.

The idea of heat and cold, is an example of the known perceptible.

The idea of angels and genii, is an example of the unknown perceptible.

The proposition that the fun shines, is an example of the known demonstrable; and

The proposition that the world was created, and that there is a Creator, is an example of the unknown demonstrable.

In the language of logicians, examination or inspection is the contemplation of the thing known to obtain a knowledge of the thing unknown; that is to say, the contemplation of the known perceptible, and the known demonstrable to obtain a knowledge of the unknown perceptible and unknown demonstrable; and as mistakes often happen in this investigation,

پسناكزير است از قانوني يعني قاعده كلي كه نكا فدارد ذهن را از خطا در فكروان قانون منطق است

پس ازین تههید رسمالعلم پعنی علم منطق قاعده کلی است که در پناه میدارد ذهن را از خطا در فکر مغهوم شد

و فكر در اصطلاح ايشان ترتيب دادن امري چند معلوم است تا برساند بطرف مجهول وضهناغايت علم نيزواضح ومنكشف كرديد

باتي ماندموضوع العلم و ان معلوم تصوري است ومعلوم تصديقي الماين حيثيت كه موصل است بطرف مجهول تصوري و مجهول تصديقي اول را معرف كويند وثاني را حجت اما معرف چنانچه تصور حيوان ناطق كه موصل است بطرف انسان وحجت چنانچه العالم متغير و كل متغير حادث كه موصل است بطرف تصديق اينهعني كه عالم حادث است

باب اول در تعریف فصل اول در دلالت

د لالت دراصطلاح ایشان بودن شي است باین حیثیت که واجب شود از علم ان علم دیکر اول را دال کویند و ثاني را مدلول ودال اکرلغظ است دلالت لغطي کویند واکرغیرلغظ است دلالت غیر لغظي و جهله بر شش قسم منقسم میشود دلالت لغظي وضعي

there is indispensibly required some general rule to preserve the mind from falling into an error in the process of thinking. This rule is logic.

FROM this discussion, therefore, it appears that the Nature of logic may be defined "A general rule which guards the mind against errors in thinking."

But in the language of logicians, thinking is an arrangement of certain things known, to obtain a knowledge of things unknown. Consequently the end or use of logic likewise becomes obvious and manifest.

THERE now remains to be examined, only the fubject of logic; and this is the known perceptible and the known demonstrable, in such a form as to lead to the unknown perceptible and unknown demonstrable. The first of these is called definition; the second demonstration or proof. "The idea of "an animal endowed with the faculty of speech," leading to the idea of man, is an example of definition. The proposition, "The world is liable to change, and every thing liable to change is created," leading to the conclusion "that the world was created," exhibits an example of demonstration.

PART I. OF DEFINITION.

SECT. I. OF EXPRESSION.

EXPRESSION in the technical language of logicians, is the existence of a thing in such general use, that there necessarily or irresistibly arises from the knowledge of that thing the knowledge of another thing. The first they call the Sign, the second the thing signified. If the sign be a word, they call it verbal expression; and if not a word, they call it expression not verbal; and these two together comprehend six different distinctions; 1. Assigned expression verbal; 2. Assigned expression not verbal; 3. Natural expression

دلالت غيرلغظي و ضعي دلالت لغظي طبعي دلالت غير لغظي طبعي دلالت لغظي عقلي دلالت غير لغظي عقلي اما دلالت لغظي وضعى چنانچه دلالت لغظ زيد بر ذات ما تشخص و دلالت غير لغظي وضعي چنانچه دلالت دوال اربع يعني خط عقد نصب لغظي وضعي چنانچه دلالت دوال اربع يعني خط عقد نصب اشارت بر مدالول خود و دلالت لغظي طبعي چنانچه دلالت اخاخ بر وجع صدر و دلالت غير لغظي طبعي چنانچه سرعت نبض بر مي يعني تپ و دلالت لغظي عقلي چنانچه دلالت لغظ دين برهي يعني تپ و دلالت لغظي عقلي چنانچه دلالت لغظ دين على مسبوع است از پس ديوار بر وجود لانظ و دلالت غير لغظي عقلي چنانچه دلالت غير لغظي

ودر اینجا از هر کونه دلالتها محض معصود دلالت لفظی وضعی است واین برسه کونه است مطابعت تضهن والتزام چراکه دلالت برموضوعله یعنی مدلول خود از سه حال بیرون نیست یا برتهام موضوع له است چنا نچه دلالت لفظا نسان برحیوان ناطق بابر جرو موضوع له است چنا نچه دلالت لفظا نسان بر حیوان یا بر خارج موضوع له است چنانچه دلالت لفظ انسان بر حیوان یا بر خارج موضوع له است چنانچه دلالت لفظ انسان برقابل علموقابل خارج موضوع له است چنانچه دلالت لفظ انسان برقابل علموقابل

verbal; 4. Natural expression not verbal; 5. Intellectual expression verbal; 6. Intellectual expression not verbal. The word Zeid appropriated to an individual, is an example of assigned expression verbal. The four signs, a line, a knot, a land mark, a signal, are examples of assigned expression not verbal. The exclamation oh! oh! from a pain in the breast, is an example of natural expression verbal. The quickness of the pulse, indicating sever, is an example of natural expression not verbal. The word Deiz heard from behind a wall, and implying the existence of a speaker, is an example of intellectual expression verbal; and the sign of smoke, implying the existence of sive, is an example of intellectual expression not verbal.

But of all these different modes of expression, we mean, at present, to consider only that of verbal expression assigned, which is of three kinds; i. That by conformity; 2. That by implication; and 3. That by assigned fociation. Thus a verbal expression assigned, may denote its object by corresponding with the whole of its character; as the word insaun, man, denotes a living being endowed with speech. By expressing a portion of its object, as the word insaun (i. e.) man, implies an animal. By acting without or beyond its object, as the word insaun (i. e.) man, implies a being capable of science, and the art of writing. The first is agreement or conformity, the second implication, the third association.

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لیکن در د لالت النزامیه لزوم ضرور است که عقلا باشل چنانچه تصور بصر نسبت با عی یا عرفا چنانچه تصور جود نسبت سحاتم.

و ديكر اينكه براي دلالت تضين والترام ضروراست دلالت مطابقت برخلاف مطابقت كماوبا اينهامحتاج نيست يسجابيكه فالالت تضهن والتزامخواهد بودد لالت مطابقت ضرور است وجاليكه دلالت مطابقت است تضهن والتزام ضرورنيست ولغظادال بالمطابقت اكر جزدارد وجزان دال است برجزو معنى پس ان لفظ مركباست مركب يا تام است بعنى مخاطب را صحت وسكوت مي بخشد يا ناتص و تام بردوكونه است خبر چنانچه زيد قايم وانشا چنانچه اضرب ومركب ناتص برينج كونه است تركيب اضافي چنانچه غلام زيد و تركيب توصيغي چنانچه رجل فاضل و ته كيب تقيدي چنانچه الرجل وفي الدار و تركيب تعدادي چنانچه خهسه عشرو تركيب امتزاجي چنانجه بعلبك كه دراصل نام یت و بادشاه است و بعد ازان شهری بدین اسم مسهوم شده

Bur in the case of expression by association, the association must either be intellectual—infered, as for example the idea of light associated with one that is blind; or founded on real knowledge such as the idea of generosity connected with a Prince.

And it is further to be remembered, that conformable expression is necessary to implication and association, whilst these, on the contrary, are not required for conformable expression; to that wherever implication and association are expressed, there must also exist conformable expression; but where these is conformable expression it does not necessarily follow that these must be also implication or association.

Is the terms of the conformable expression consist of parts, and these parts be conformable to portions of the sense, then that term is a compounded word; and the compound is either perfect, giving to the heaver complete satisfaction; or imperfect. Perfect compounds are of two kinds, viz. predicative such as "Zeid is standing;" or insaun, such as ezreb, beat thou. Imperfect compounds are of sive kinds, 1st, The composition of relation such as "the slave of Zeid;" 2d, The composition of qualification, such as "an excellent man;" 3d, The composition of confirmation, Such as "the man in the house," 4th, The composition of numbers, such as Hemseb Usher; and 5th, The composition of habit, use, custom, such as "Balbec," which originally is the name of a devil or king, and has now became the name of a city.

واكر چنين نيست يعنى جزولغظ دال برجزومعنى نيست ان رامغرد كويد ومفرد برسه كونه است اكرمعنى اومستقل است وبهيت خود دلالت ميكندازيك زمانه از ازمنه ثلثه پسان كلهه فعل است واكر چنين نيست بلكه محض مستقل است پس اسم است واكر ازهردو بيرون است يعني نه دلالت ميكند برزمانه ونه مستقل است پس حرف وادات است

وازاناسم برچند كونه است علم متواطي مشكك مشترك منقول حقيقت مجاز

جراكه ازدوحال بيرون نيست معني او واحداست ياكثير اكرواحد استريس مع التشخصان عندالواضع علم است جنانچه لغظاز يدوعرو وغيرهما

وبدون تشخص متواطي است اكرمساوي باشد افرا دان چنا نچه غنم وبغر

ومشكك است اكرمتفاوت باشد باوليت وولويت چنانچه وجود نسبت بواجب تعالى و مكن

واکرچنین نیست یعنی کثیراست پس اکروضع کرده شده است برای هر واحد برابرچنانچه لفظ عین که موضوع است برای ذات وزر روچشهه و چشم پس مشترک است

واكر برابرنيست بلكه اولبراي يكمعنى موضوع شده بعدازان

But if the terms of conformable expression be not of this description; that is to say, if portions of the expression be not conformable to portions of the sense, it is then called simple or uncompounded; which is of three kinds; 1st, When the sense is affirmative and at the same time expresses in its form one of the three tenses it then constitutes that part of the speech called a verb. 2. If it do not express time, but merely some object, then it is a noun; and 3. If it express neither time nor any particular object, then it is a particle.

The noun is of several kinds; ist. Appellations or proper names; 2d. Generic names; 3d. Unlimited or ambiguous terms; 4th. Synonimous terms; 5th. Technical terms; 6th. Literal terms; 7th. Metaphorical terms. 1. As a noun may express one or many, it is either singular, or plural. If it express one with an appropriation to a particular individual, then it is a proper name; such as the names Zeid and Omar, &c. 2. If it express one, without any appropriation to a particular individual, and all the individuals be equal or alike, then it is a generic name, such as a sheep, a goat, &c. 3. If it be variable with respect to priority or excellence as the word nature or existence with regard to the Creator and his creatures, then it is variable or ambiguous; 4. If the noun is common to many objects, and is appropriated to each of these alike, as the word seen which signifies self, gold, sountain, and the eye; then it is synonimous or equivocal; 5. But if it be not uniformly so, but being first used in one sense,

بطرف معنی دیکرمنقول کشته مدران مشهور کردیده ان را منقول کویند ونسبت کرده میشود بطرف ناقل واکرناقل او عرف عام است منقول عرفی کویند واکرشرع است اصطلاحی کویند واکرشرع است منقول عرفی کویندواکرچئین نیست بلکه درهردومعنی مستعهل است نسبت باول حقیقت است ونسبت بثانی سجاز است چنانچه لغظ اسد که نسبت بحیوان صایل یعنی شیرحقیقت است و نسبت برجل سجاع سجاز است

و فصل دوم در دانستن معهوم من المنه مدامود الموسامد و

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ودانكه غرض منطقي مقصود بالذات ازمغهوم است بحث ازدلاات والفاظمة عض بالعرض بودكه اين واسطه اناده استفاده انتاده است والفاظمة عض بالعرض بودكه اين واسطه اناده استفاده انتاده است پس بدانكه مغهوم اكرنزديك بتجويز عقل مهتنع باشد صدت ان مر كثيرين پس جزي است چنانچه زيد واكرچنين نيست يعني نزديك بتجويز عقل صدق ان يركثيرين مهتنع نيست پس كلي است اكرچه مهتنع باشدوجود افرادان چنانچه شريك الباري يا مهكن معدوم الوجود باشد چنانچه عنقا پايانته شده باشدواحد فقط مهكن معدوم الوجود باشد چنانچه عنقا پايانته شده باشدواحد فقط معامكان الغيرچنانچه واجب الوجود

and afterwards converted to another, becomes current in its new acceptation, it is then metaphorical, and takes its character from the person who employs it. If the speaker be an illiterate common person, it is called a vulgar phrase; if he be a man of science, it is called a technical term; and if he belong to the law, it is called a law phrase. But if this be not the case, and a word be used indifferiminately in both ways, the sirst directly applicable to its original object, and the second to that to which it is transferred; such as the word lion, it constitutes when signifying a sierce animal, the literal or 6th species of Noun, and when used to denote a hero, the 7th species, or figurative.

SECT. II. OF IDEAS FORMED BY THE INTELLECT.

BE it known that the object of the logicians confidered strictly is the thing comprehended by the understanding. Our discussion respecting expression and language was necessary to our design merely because this is the instrument or means by which that is conveyed or understood. Know then that an idea, which in the conception of the understanding, is not, true or applicable to the whole of the individuals of a class, is a particular idea; and that an idea that is applicable to the whole without restriction is an universal idea, even although it should exclude the existence of other constituent parts, for example "an equal to Gon," or though it should express a being having no existence, such as the Unca; or if there should be found a single being with the mere probability of another, such as the Sun; or with the impossibility of another, such as the Creator;

ما كتير باشدا فراد ان مع التناهى چنانچه سبعدسيان وعدم تناهى معلومات باري

چون درمیان کلی وجری تفرقه حاصل شد پس حالا بدانکه درمیان دو کلی یکی ازین چهار نسبتی متحقق میشود تباین تساوی عهوم خصوص مطلق عهوم خصوص من وجه

تباین ان است که از هردو جانب تفارق کلی باشد چنانه انسان وحیرکه یک جا صادق نهیاید این نسبترا در اصطلاح ایشان تباین کویند و هردو کلی را باهم متباین

وتساوی ان است که در هر دوجانب صدق کلی باشد چنانحه انسان
وناطق که جایکه انسان است ناطق است وجایکه ناطق است انسان
نیز البته این نسبترا تساوی کویدد و هرود کلی را باهم متساوی
وجوم خصوص مطلق ان است که از یک جانب صدق کلی با شد
وازجانب دیکرنه چنانچه انسان و حیوان جایکه انسان است حیوان
البته خواهد بود و جایکه حیوان است انسان ضرور نیست این
نسبترا وم خصوص، طلق کویندو هردو کلی را باغم عام خاص مطلق
و دو وم خصوص، طلق کویندو هردو کلی را باغم عام خاص مطلق
و دو مخصوص، صوحه ان است که در هردو از کسی جانب صدق
کلی نباشد چنانچه حیوان و اسود در بعضی محل حیوان است

or where several individuals are included with a limitation, such as the wisdom of God.

HAVING afcertained the distinction between universal and particular ideas, then know that there are established, among universal ideas, the four following relations: 1. The relation of disagreement; 2. The relation of agreement; 3. Relation between the general and particular idea in one way; 4. The relation of the general and particular idea in no way.

- 1. The relation of contrariety or difagreement is that in which there is a general repugnance on both fides as between man and stone; which do not reciprocate or correspond in any point, this relation logicians call contrariety, and the two general ideas with regard to each other contraries.
- 2. The relation of agreement is that in which there is a perfect reciprocity and agreement, for example "man" and "an animal endowed with speech;" For where there is a man, there also is an animal endowed with speech. This is called the relation of agreement; and the general terms are called correspondent or reciprocal.
- 3. In the relation called Amom Chifoos Mutlick, the fense of the general idea is corresponding or reciprocal only in one way; and not in the other; for example "man," "and living animal," where there is a man there is of course a living animal. But the reverse of this is not necessary, This relation is called Amom Chisoos Mutlick, and both terms opposed to each other Amom Chisoos Mutlick.
- 4. And the relation of Amom Chisos min wojéh is that in which there is no reciprocation between the terms in any way; such as "animal" and blackness;" For sometimes there is an animal without blackness, and

المستراعوم خصوص من وجه كويند وهردوكلي را باهم عام وخاص نسبتراعوم خصوص من وجه كويند وهردوكلي را باهم عام وخاص

we come that there are emablified emong ordered lines, the

پس حاصل کلام این است که در اول از هر دو جانب کلیة ماده اختراق است وار ثانی ازهر دو جانب کلیة ماده اختراق است وار ثالث از یک جانب کلیة ماده اجتهاع است و در جانب دیکر در یک محل ماده افتراق و در اربع از هر دو جانب در بعضی محل ماده اختراع است و در بعضی محل ماده اختراق

و نيز بدانكه كاهى كغته ميشود جزيى براي اخض يعنى هرچه مند رج تحت عام است اترا جزي كويند ليكن اول جزي حقيقي است و ثاني جزي اضاني پس على هذا التقدير انسان جزي اضاني است نسبت بحيوان وحيوان جزي اضاني نسبت بحيوان وحيوان جزي اضاني نسبت جسم ناهي وجسم نامي جزي اضاني نسبت لحسم مطاق على هذا القياس هرچه مندرج تحت منهوم عام است نسبت بان جزي

الضافي تواند بول

4. And the relation of Asten (Nifacemin mysh is that in which there is no reciprocation between the terms in any way; fuch as " entired " and " blackmets;" Hot formatimestices is on animal without blackmets, and

عدالهج لعن في مسلط والمناق في المنظم المناسبة ال

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fometimes blackness without an animal, This is called Amom Chisos min wojéh, and the terms in relation to each other Amom Chisos min wojéh.

THE refult is this, that in the first, the basis of the universal is disjunction on both sides; In the fecond, the basis of the universal is conjunction; In the third, the basis of the universal is conjunction on one side, and disjunction on on the other; and in the fourth, there is on both sides, in certain points disjunction and certain points conjunction.

Let it also be remembered that sometimes the term Juzzi is used for Achuz a portion, that is to say that whatever is ranked under a general idea is called Juzzi. But the first, viz. Achuz, is called a real portion, and the second Juzzi izausi, that is a related part. According to this rule, therefore, man with regard to animal is a related part; and animal is a part with regard to Jism naumi or body defined; and body defined is a related part with regard to body in general, accordingly whatever is arranged under a general idea may be called Juzzi izausi, or a related part.

المراجعة الم

ونيس و در دواب ان حيوان راقع هول يس دوان موري جنس

است در العمالين منور عيوان سبت بانسان حروماهيت ايت

وهم جامع است در ميان السان ونوس كم باعر سحالت الحقيقت

المن و تتركم سوال كند أل حقيقات فرس و بقر و غنم و غفره يس

السان العلا و في المحمد المان عن و قيله سرال الله در حقيق السان

Temetimes blackness without an animal, This is called Anaga Colors

وكليات همكى بنج كونداند جنس نوع نصل خاصه عرض عام چراكه هر مفهوم کلی که هست از دو حال بیرون نیست داخل ماهیت است باخارج ماهيت اكرداخل ماهيت نيز ازدوحال بيرون نيست تهام ماهیت افراد خود است یاجروماهیت اکر تهام ماهیت افراد خوداست چنانچه انسان که تهام ماهیت زید و عروبکر و غیره است پس انرا نوع كويند أكرنيام ماهيت افراد خود نيستبلكه جنرو ماهیت است ای نیز از هر دو حال بیرون نیست جامع است جهيع مشتركات مختلف الحقايق رايا جامع نيست اكرجامع است چنانچه حيوان كه جامع است درميان انسان وفرس وبغر كه باهم مختلف الحقيقت اند پس انوا جنس كويند ليكن دراينجا فرق نازكاست هيين حيوان است كه دريك محلجنس تواند بود و دریک محل نوع و و تنیکه سوال کنند در حقیقت انسان وفرس و درجواب ان حيوان واقع شود پس دران صورت جنس است چراکه اینجامغهوم حیوان نسبت بانسان جروماهیت است وهم جامع است در ميان انسان وفرس كه باهم مخلتف الحقيقت اند و قائيكه سوال كنند از حقيقت فرس و بقرو غنم وغيره پس

SECT. III. OF THE FIVE UNIVERSALS CALLED PREDICABLES.

THE universals or predicables are altogether of five kinds, viz. genus, species, difference, peculiarity, accident. For every universal is reducible to one of two kinds, it is either, inherent in the form, or not inherent in the form. If it be inherent in the form, this also is of two kinds. It either includes the whole form or character of the individuals under it; or it is only a part of the form; if it include the whole form of the individuals under it, fuch as " Man," which includes the whole form of ZEID, OMAR, or BECKAR, &c. then it is called a Species. If it be not the whole form of the individuals but only a portion, this also is of two kinds. It either comprehends the whole of the different individuals, or it does not, if it comprehend the whole like Heywaun, animal, which comprehends man, horse, and goat, varying in their character from each other, then they call it a genus, but here there is a nice diffinction; for " animal" which is in one place a genus, in another way becomes a species. For example, when it is asked what is the nature of man or horse, and it is answered that they are animals, then, in this case, it is a genus: because here the idea of animal with regard to man is only part of his character, and at the fame time comprehends man and horse, which vary in their nature from each other. But when the question is put respecting the nature of horse, goats, and sheep, &ce.

حيث كف ما است مار ف محمول المعرف وال واسرف كويند يس برس الرفق عرف كه كليات اند خيسه فاريده علامه وف والمستصر دبالذات الا تصورات هيين است كفته نيشود ازان صورت نوع است چراکه در اینجا معهوم حیوان جروماهیت نیست بلکه تهامه هیت نرس و بقر وغنم است و اکر جزوماهیت است باینطور که جامع نیست بلکه مانع مشترکات مختلف الحقایق را پس فصل است چنانچه ناطق که تهام ماهیت نیست جزوماهیت انسان است لیکن غیر اور امیکنند

واین هرسدرا دراسطالاح ایشان داتیات کویند و انچددرخارج
ماهیت است ان نیز از دوحال بیرون نیست مختص بحقیقت واحده
است یا مختص بحقیقت واحده نیست اکر مختص بحقیقت واحده
است چنانچه ضحک که مختص بحقیقت انسان است فقط پس ان را
خاصه کویندا کر مختص بحقیقت نیست چنانچه حمرت وصفرت پس
ان راعرض عام کویند

فصل چهارم درتعريفات

بدانكه غرض از بحث تصورات دانستن معلوم تصوري بودباين حيثيت كه موصل است بطرف مجهول تصوري و ان را معرف كويند پس چون ازجزاي معرف كه كليات اند خهسه فارغشد حالامعرف راكه معصود بالذات از تصورات هين است كفتهميشود

in this case animal is a species; for the thing understood by animal is not a part of the character but the whole of the character of horse, goat, and sheep. But if it be a portion of the character in such a manner as not to include the different associates, but to exclude them, then it is a difference, for example nautik, speaking; which is not the whole, but part of the character of man, which they abstract.

THESE three are called zautiaut, inherent or effential. Whatever is not effentially inherent in the character or nature, is likewise reducible to two kinds, it is something exclusively appropriated to one object only, or it is not exclusively appropriated to one object only. If it be exclusively or peculiarly appropriated like laughter, which is the peculiar property of man alone, then they call it chauseh, a peculiar property or peculiarity. If it be not peculiarly appropriated, such as the colour yellow and red, then it is called aurizé aum or common accident.

SECT. IV. OF THE DIFFERENT SPECIES OF DEFINITION.

LET it be remembered, that our object in discussing the subject of ideas was to obtain a knowledge of the known perceptible in such a manner or form as might lead to a knowledge of the perceptible unknown, and this they call maurrif, that is, a definition; and, therefore, since its constituent parts, which are the five universal ideas or predicables, have been just now described, a definition, which in reality consists of those, is of course, already explained.

معرف هر چیزان است که حیل کرده شده بران برای اینکه فايده تصور انشى حاصل شود چننجه معرف انسان حيوان ناطق كه وشرط است در معرف اينكه مساوي باشد براي معوف يعني انچەتعرىفان كردەمىشودلازماست كەبالونسېتىمساوات متحقق باشد ونيزلازم است كممعرف اجلي يعني واضعتر و روشنترباشد پس تعریف بالا عم صحیر نیست مثلا تعریف انسان بحیوان و باخص نيز روا نست مثلاتعريف حيوان بانسان چراكه درميان هردونسبتعوم خصوص مطلق است مساوات نيست وشرطاين است كهمساوات باشد ونيز جايز نيست كه تعويف به چيز يكه مساوي معرف باشد درعلم و هچنین جایز نیست به چیزیکه اخفی از معرف بود چرا که شرط این شده که معرف مساوي و اجلی ميبايد

پس چون تعریف معرف و شرایطان معلوم شداکنون بدانکه معرف همدر چهار کونه است حدتام حده ناتص رسم تام رسم نا قص اکر بجنس قریب و نصل قریب باشد چنانچه تعریف انسان حیوان ناطق پس حد تام است و اکر بجنس بعیدو نصل قریب

THE maurraf or the thing defined is that respecting which every circumstance is collected that can tend to give a proper idea of it, take for example beiwaun nautik, a speaking animal, as the definition of " infaun," that is Man; and, in defining, the definition must correspond with the thing defined, that is to fay, the description with regard to the thing defcribed must stand in the relation of mussawaut muttabukuk real correspondence. It is likewise required that the definition should be more perspicuous, that is, more clear and obvious, and for this reason defining by a term that is more general than the thing defined is not proper; fuch for example as the description of Man by the term animal. Neither is it admissible to define by a term that is less general; such as the description of animal by the word Man; because the relation between animal and man, is that of Amom Chusoofe Mutluk, and not that of Mussawaat or perfect agreement, which is required, nor is it allowable to define by means of a thing equally known, or less known than the thing defined, because it is required that the description should correspond, and be at the same time more clear.

THE nature of definition and its requifites being now understood, let it be remembered that definitions may all be referred to four different kinds, viz.

- 1. Huddi Taum or perfect definition.
- 2. Huddi Naukis or imperfect definition.
- 3. Refimi Taum or perfect indication or defignation.
- 4. Refimi Naukis or imperfect indication or defignation.

1. If the definition confist of the nearest genus and the nearest difference, then it is a perfect definition, such as Heiwaun Nautik, the definition of man. 2. If it consist of the remote genus and the nearest difference,

بود يا نقط نصل قريب بود پس نا قص است چنائچه تعريف انسان جسمنامي ناطق يا ناطق فقطواكر بجنس قريب وخاصه باشد چنانچه تعریف حیوان صاحک پس رسم تام است و اکر بجنس بعيد وخاصه بوديا نقط بخاصه بود پس رسم ناتص است چنانچه تعريف انسان جسمنامي صاحك ياصاحك نقط وتعريف صرف يعرض عام معتبرنداشة اند چراكه غرض ازتعريف امتياز ومعرف است ازما سواي او واين فايده ازعرض عام حاصل نهيشود وكاهي رخصت داده شدهاست درناتص خواه حدناتص باشد خواهرسم نانص تعريف بلغظ اعممثلا تعريف لغظى وتعريف لغظى انست كه معنى لغظى نامعلوم است لغظى ديكر براي تفسير وتوصيح او اورده شد چنانچه كويندالغضنغر هوالاسد يعنى غضنغر بيعنى شيراست وهمين تسمدر تعريف لغظي كاهي بلغظ اعمهم اكتغاكرده ميشولچنانچهكسى كەنمىداندىيرسىد كەدردچەچىزاستكويند كلى است كينين اكردرحد ناقص يارسم ناقص لغظ اعم وارد شده رخمت داده اند مورد مد المدرود ووروز الما الم العالم

or the nearest difference alone, then it is an impersect definition, such as Jism Naumi Nautik for man, or Nautik alone. 3. If the description consist of the nearest genus, and the property or peculiarity, such as Hiewaun Saubuk, a creature that laughs, for man, it is a persect mark or designation. 4. And if it consist of the remote genus and peculiarity, or of the peculiarity alone, then it is an impersect mark or description; such as Jism Naumi Sauhuk, a piece of laughing substance, or Saubukie, laughing, only, as a designation of man.

And further, defignation by common accident is not conceived to be good; because the object of definition is the discrimination of the thing defined from others; and this is not obtained from common accident. Sometimes in the Huddi Naukis and Rismi Naukis, Indication by a more common word or verbal description is admitted. That is the real meaning of a word not being well understood, another word is employed to explain and elucidate; for instance they say Ulrruzsfur booul assad to explain Ruzsfur, which also means a lion. And in like manner in verbal description the designation is effected by an expression more common, as for example when a person who does not know it asks "what is pain" they will say it is a thing common to all; and thus, in the Huddi Naukis and Resimi Naukis; if a more common word be used, it is allowed.

عايران راسطال المان موضوع كوسند جفائحه مراسطان ني

الرومشاء استدراء جناحة بالهرزيد

ميتوا و عرم در در اسطلاع ايشان معرو ل خوالند ومن الهد كمركز في خدماست بدرونا أجدنا يردر زيد عليها نر استرول كل در

باب دوم درخجت فصل اول الارتضيه

بدانکهغرض ازتصدیقات دانستن معلوم تصدیقی است باین حیث حیث دین معلوم تصدیقی وانراقیاس و حیت کوینده و چون قیاس مرکب است از قضایایس اول دانستن قضیه لازم است

القصيه قول تحمل الصدق والكذب قضيه در اصطلاح ايشان قول است یعنی سرکباست چکونه سرکب که احتهال میدارد وصدق وكذب را چنانچه كه زيد قايم برخلاف انشا يعنى اضرب غرض كلام خبر به را در اصطلاح ایشان تصیه كویند وان تضیه اكر باشد حكم دراو به ثبوت چيزي براي چيزي چنانچه كذشت يابنغي چيزي از چيزي چنانچه زيد ليس بعايم يعني زيد نيست عايم پس این تضیه جلیه است لیکن فرق این است که اول را جلیه موجبه كويند وثانى راحليه سالبه ونامداشته ميشود محكم عليه موضوع يعنى انچه حكم كرده شده استبراو چنانچه زيددرزيد قايم ان را در اصطلاح ايشان موضوع كوبند چنانچه در اصطلاح نحو مبتدا وصحكم به را در اصطلاح ايشان محمول خوانند يعنى انچه حكمكرده شدهاستبدوچنانچهقايمدر زيدقايم انرامحهولكويند

PART II. OF DEMONSTRATION.

SECT. I. OF PROPOSITIONS.

Let it be remembered, that the object of considering truths, is to obtain a knowledge of truth known in such a manner as to lead us to the know-ledge of truth unknown; and this they call syllogism and reasoning: and since a syllogism is composed of propositions, a previous knowledge of these is required of course.

A PROPOSITION is a sentence containing either a truth or an untruth; that is to say in the language of logicians, it is a compound or affirmation containing what is true or salse; such as Zeid is standing, in contradistinction to an expression such as Azreb which does not convey any affertion. In short the thing predicated is called a proposition, and if that proposition affirm some thing of another thing, as in the preceding example, or deny any thing of another thing, as in the example Zeid Kauim Naist, Zeid is not standing," then these are absolute propositions, and the first is called an absolute affirmative, and the second an absolute negative, and the subject of which the affirmation is made, corresponding to mubical in grammar is called Mozocey; as Zeid in the sentence Zeid Kauim; and the thing spoken or proposed respecting the Mozocey is called Mubmool: such as Kauim he is standing, in the sentence Zeid Kauim,

to be to we want

چنانچه در اضطلاح نحو خبس ۵ میره معمد مدر ده د وانچه دال بر نسبت است انرا رابط كويند چنانچه دراصطلاح المحوضهير واستعاره كرده اند براي ان لفظهو يعنى رابط در زيد قايم ومثل ان مثال در لغظ مذكور نيست وضروراست كه براي رابط كلام چيزي ميبايد پس لازم دراين مقام استعاره كودد اند بلفظ هويعنى كويندكه براي رابط كلام هو دراينجامستهراست واكر اينتجنين نباشد چنانچه كذشت پس ان تضيه شرطيه كويند چنانچه انكانت الشرس طالعة فالنهار موجود يعني اكو باشد افتاب روشن پس روز موجود است اینچنین تضیه را قضیه شرطيه ونام داشته ميشود جزاول يعنى انكانت الشهس طالعة در اصطلاح ایشان معدم چنانچه در اصطلاح نحو شرط و نام داشته

بعد ازاین بد انکه تضیه حملیه بحسب موضوع برچند تسم

میشود جزر ثانی نالنهار موجود در اصطلاح ایشان تالی چنانچه

در اصطلاح نحوخبر

نصل دوم دربیان تیاس تیاس تولی است که ترکیب داده شده است از تضیع ها اینچنین corresponding in the language of syntax to the term Chabber.

THAT which expresses the connection between the subject and predicate is called Raubit or copula. In grammar they make use of the word Hoo for this annection; and some thing similar being required for connecting the words "Zeid Kauim" they have, for this purpose, substituted the pronoun Hoo, which is understood without being expressed.

But if the thing predicated be not affirmative or negative of something ascribed to something, as in the preceding examples, then such a proposition is denominated conditional, as for example, " If the sun shine, then it must be day." The first member of this sentence, " If the sun shine," logicians call Mokuddem, that is, the antecedent; which corresponds to the term "shire" the condition in syntax, and the second part of the porposition " Then it must be day," is denominated tauli, that is, the consequent; which corresponds to the term Chabber in syntax.

This being premifed, know that an absolute or categorical proposition admits of various distinctions arising from the nature of the Mozooch or subject, &c. &c.

SECT. II. OF SYLLOGISMS.

A syllogism is a fentence composed of propositions, and in such a manner,

فالداد وربون ايكان الغيس طالعة يس فتعب كاسل خواهده ن

قول که لازم است براي ذاك او قولي ديكر بدانکة چون از احث قضيه ها که دانستن حجت موقوف بران بود فارغ شد اکنون در احث حجت شرع کرد و حجت دايل اوردن ازحال چيزي است براي اثبات حال جيزي وان برسه کونه قياس استقراته ثيل اما تياس ان است که دايل ارد از حال کلي برحال جزی که اين جزي داخل ان کليست پسشريک ان حال خواهد بود اين قسم دليل مفيد يقين است چنانچة العالم متغير وکل متغير حادث پس نتيجه حاصل خواهد شد که العالم حادث بدانکه قول مولف که از ذات او قولي ديکر لازم ميايد انراقياس کويند و قولي ديکر لازم ميايد انراقياس کويند و قولي ديکر که از او پيده ميشود انرا نتيجه نامند

وهردوطرف نتیجهیعنی موضوع و محمول نتیجه که در دیاس مذکوراند انرا ماده نتیجه خوانند و ترتیب که در میان انها واقع است انرا هیت نامزد فرمایند پس اکر نتیجه اندرون قیاس بهاده و هیت خود مذکوراست آن قیاسرا قیاس استثنای کویند چراکه مستهل است بر کله هاستثنا یعنی لیکن چنانچه کلهاکانت الشهس طالعه نالنهار موجود لیکن الشهس طالعة پس نتیجه حاصل خواهدشد که النهار موجود که اندارون قیاس بهاده و هیت مذکوراند و اکر

that there necessarily arises from this composition another sentence. Know then that having finished our investigation of propositions on the pevious knowledge of which all reasoning or demonstration depends, I shall now consider demonstration :- Demonstration or reasoning is the process of infering some thing from the state of one thing to prove the state of another; and this is of three kinds, viz. Syllogism, Induction, and Analogy. Syllogism is that in which an inference is drawn from a general rule or class to a subordinate part or individual belonging to that class; which must of course partake of its general nature or character. This species of argument affords certainty or truth. Take for example " The world is changeable, and every thing liable to change was created;" thus they obtain the conclusion that the world did not exist from eternity, that is, was created. Be it then understood that two sentences combined, from the nature of which there necessarily arises a third, constitute what is called Keeause or syllogism: and the third sentence thus obtained is called Neteejeb, that is, the conclusion.

THE subject and predicate contained in the conclusion of the syllogism described is called the Maddeb, that is, the matter of the conclusion; and the order in which they are placed constitutes what is called Heizet, that is, the form or figure. If the matter and figure of the conclusion appear in the premises of the syllogism, then that syllogism is called conditional, because the conditional particle Leiken must be included in it. Take for example "whenever the sun shines day must exist;" but the sun shines, which gives the conclusion—
"Then day exists," which is materially and formally contained in the preceding syllogism. But if the conclusion be not materially and formally

چنین نباشد یعنی نتیجه درقیاس به هبت خود مذکو رئباشدانرا قیاس اقترانی کویدد خواه حیلی باشد خواه شرطی

موضوع مطلوب يعني موضوع نتيجه از قياس جملي نام داشته ميشود اصغروم مول نتيجه از جملي نام داشته ميشود اكبروتفيه كه در او اضغر است انرا اصغري كويند و انچه در او اكبراست انرا اكبري كويند و وانچه در او اكبراست انرا اكبري كويند وانچه درميان موضوع ومحمول نتيجه مكرر واتع شده است انرا حد اوسط و اوسط كويند

نصل سيوم دراستقرا

بداتکه استقرا پیدا کردن جنریثات است برای ثبات کردن حکم
برکلی بدانکه همکی حجت و دایل برسه کونه است اول قیاس
دوم استقرا سیوم ته ثیل اول قیاس چنانچه کذشت اما استقرا انست
که دلیل ارد از حال جزینات برای اثبات حکم کلی که بر تهامی ان
جزینات ثابت است واین استقرا بر دو کونه قسیت میاید استقرا
قام واستقرا ناقص

اما استقراتام انست که تهامی جزینات انرا ملاحظه نهوده حکم برکل نهایند چنانچه کلحیوان اماناطق و غیرناطق و کل ناطق حساس که تیجه میدهدکل حیوان ناطق حساس که تیجه میدهدکل حیوان

expressed in the premises of the syllogism, then it is denominated Ikterauni, that is, simple or categorical: whether it be absolute or conditional.

The Jubject considered in the conclusion of a simple syllogism is called Afrur, that is, the minor; and the thing predicated of the subject is called Akbar, that is, the major; and the proposition which contains the minor is called Sururi, minor proposition; and the proposition which contains the major, is called Akburi or major proposition; and the term with which the subject and predicate of the conclusion are both compared is called the middle term or Huddi Osit, or Osit, &c. &c. &c.

N. B. From the various modes in which the middle term may be placed, there arises a division of syllogism into sour different forms or figures, or Ashkaul; which are again subdivided and branched out into a great many subordinates.

SECT. III. OF INDUCTION.

BE it known that Induction is the process of collecting particulars for the purpose of establishing a general rule respecting the nature of the whole class.

ARGUMENT, or reasoning, is supposed, as we formerly observed, to be of three kinds, Syllogism, Induction, and Analogy; and syllogism has been just now discussed. Induction is of two kinds, viz. perfect and impersect.

It is perfect induction when the general rule is obtained from an examination of all the parts. For example, all animals are either endowed with speech, or not endowed with speech. But those endowed and those not endowed are both sentient, therefore all animals are sentient. This is an example

حساس انرا استقرا تام کویندواین قسم استقرا مغیدیقین است
اما استقرا ناقص انکه اکرجزینات انرا اتفغے نهایند وبعد ازان
حکم برکل ان جرینات نهایند چنانچه کویندکل حیوان متحرک دندان
چکه الاسغل عندالمضغ یعنی هرحیوان که هست متحرک دندان
زرین اونزدیک حامیدن چراکه انسان و فرس وبقر و غنم وغیران
که از قسم حیوان فرض کنیم هچنین است و انرا استقرا ناقص
کویند چراکه این قسم استقرا مغید یقین نهیشود واحتهال است
که بعضی ازاینها چنان باشند که چکه اسغل نزدیک مضغ حرکت
ننهایند چنانچه این معنی مسهوع شد در تهساخ یعنی نهنک
بدانکه دو قسم ازدایل که تیاس واستقرا است بیان ان کذشت

نصل چهارم در تهثيل

و تبثیل بیان مشارکت جنری است برای جنری دیکر در علت و موجب حکم تاانکه ثابت شودنسبت ان حکم در اوچنانچه کویند نبید یعنی غوره حرام است وعلت حرمت درخبر سکراست و سکر در غوره هم مرجود است پس ثابت شد که غوره نیز حرام باشد عده در طریق آن دوران و تردید است

of perfect Induction, which produces certainty.

It is imperfect induction when a number of individuals of a class being overlooked or excluded, a general rule is thus established respecting the whole. For instance, if it should be assumed that all animals move the under jaw in eating, because this is the case with man, horse, goats and sheep, this would be an example of imperfect induction, which does not afford certainty: because it is possible that some animals may not move the under jaw in eating, as it is reported of the Tumsukh or Nebung, the crocodile.

HAVING confidered the first two modes of reasoning, there still remains to be explained Analogy.

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SECT. IV. OF ANALOGY.

ANALOGY is the unfolding of an affinity or refemblance between two fubordinate parts of the same class, differing in their nature and properties, so as to establish a general law and axiom respecting both, take for example the general rule that "grapes are prohibited because wine is," which conclusion is obtained thus. The cause of the prohibition of wine is intoxication; but intoxication exists also in the grape; therefore it is proved that the grape likewise is prohibited. The instruments of this process are analysis and selection, &c. &c.

جا در متواتوات و مترالزات الرا كويند كه دران حكم كذه عقل بواسط استهاع الرجاعي كم محال دانده احتبال الرابوكل ب جنائيه محيد عليه السلام وعيسي عليه المحاليم نبي خدا استد

٥٠ ووالوظ الما فصل پنجم در تقسيم قياس بحسب ماده

بدائکه قیاس چنانچه بحسب صورت دو قسم است اقترانی و استثنای ماه چنانچه کذشت همچنین بحسب ماده یعنی باعتبار اجرانیز پر پنج ماده یعنی باعتبار اجرانیز پر پنج ماده کونه میشود اول برهانی دوم جدای سیوم خطابی چهارم شعری بنجم سفسطی بنجم سفسطی است است سامه ایسان است است سفسطی بنجم سفسطی است است سفسطی س

وتياس برهاني مركب ميشود ازيقينات يعني بدهيات واصول ان شهراست اول اوليات و اوليات ازاكويندكه نقط ملاحظه موضوع و محمول ونسبت كافي باشد براي حكم چنانچه الكل اعظم من لجز دوم مشاهدات و مشاهدات انزاكويندكه در ان حكم كرده شده با شد بواسطه حس اكرحس ظاهرباشد انزاحسيات كويند چنانچه و الشهس مضية والنار محرقته واكرحس باطن باشد انزاجدينات الشهد كويند چنانچه لناجوعا وعطشا

وسیوم تجربیات است و تجربهات انرا کویند که دران حکم کند عقل بتکرار تجربه چنانچه السقهونیا مسهل

چها رم متواترات و متواترات انرا کویند که دران حکم کند عقل بواسطه استهاع ازجهاعت که محال داند احتهال انرابر کذب چنانچه محمد علیه السلام وعیسی علیه السلام نبی خدا است

SECT. V. SYLLOGISM DIVIDED ACCORDING TO THEIR MATTER.

LET it be observed that as syllogisms have been divided according to their figure or form into absolute and conditional, so are they likewise distinguished according to their matter or constituent parts, into sive different classes, viz. the demonstrative, the casuistical, the rhetorical, the poetical, the sophistical.

- I. THE demonstrative are composed of truths, that is to say, perceptions, the different species of which are fix.
 - 1. Intuitive or felf evident truths; to obtain which the bare infpection of the subject and predicate, and the relation in which they
 stand to each other is sufficient: for example " a whole is larger
 than a part."
 - 2. Evidences, obtained by means of sensation which are called Hissaut if they be external, such as "the sun shines, the fire burns;" and Judinaut, if they be internal, as for example "hunger and thirst."
 - 3. Experiences, which are the conclusions formed by the underflanding from repeated trials, as for example "that Scammony is a Cathartic."
 - 4. Traditions, which are the conclusions which the understanding forms from the reports of a number of people; and which cannot be supposed to be false, such as the mission of the prophet Mahommed, and Jesus Christ.

بنجم قياس سغسطي است وان مركب ميشود از وهيات ومشبهات

اما وههیات ان تضیه هاست که حکم میکند بایشان در غیر امور سخسوسه مثل کل موجود مشار الیه

ومشبهات ان تضیه ها اند که کا ذب اند دراصل و مشتبه بصدی مینها یند چنانچه کویم صورت فرس را که منتوش است بردیوار وفرس است وهر فرس صهال است نتیجه میدهد که این صورت صهال است

II. The calculical or disputative, which are,

t. Current and seculing epinious egerable to the ideas of the malritude, fuch as " learning is good, and ignorance bad."

n. Malicions infinuacions arefully expressed to conceal the motive,

III. Tat rhotorical, which are computed;

Of propolitions taken for granted upon fome respectable authority.
 (uch as that of the prophets and subjects).

2. Of prefumptions or fulpicions grounded on the frequency of force improper practice; furth as that of a perfor being a thirt from the coing abroad in the edght.

 Tex poetical, which are founded on action. Money, 70: example, they make a liquid ruby.

- V. THE fophistical, are composed,
- 1. Of vague language without specifying any precise object, such as the vague expression " The person to whom we allude."
- Quibbles, which though absolutely false, exhibit some appearance of truth; as if I should say that " the figure of the horse which is painted on the wall is a horse;" that " every horse neighs;" and consequently that " the figure on the wall must also neigh."

went the score to the ampoint when I had the entered of sentence the plan-

stocks being the president and of an ofe on the important from which is

- V. The fonhilitari, are composed,
- .. Of vague language without specifying any precise object, such as the vague expension "The person to whom we allude,"
- 3. Ogibbles, which though abfolutely false, exhibit some appearance of truth; as if I thought by that "the figure of the horse which is prioted confine wall in a horse;" that "tovery horse neight;" and consequently that "the figure on the wall must also neigh."

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An Account of the Measurement of an Arc on the meridian on the COAST of COROMANDEL, and the length of a degree deduced therefrom in the latitude 12° 32'.

BY BRIGADE MAJOR WILLIAM LAMBTON.

In a former Paper which I had the honor to communicate to the Afiatich Society, I gave a short sketch of an intended plan for establishing a series of connecting points commencing from the Coromandel Coast, and extending across the Peninsula; but that Paper was only meant to convey a general idea of the principles on which the work was to be conducted, a more circumstantial and scientific account, it was thought, would be more to the purpose when I had the means of putting the plan in execution, and detailing the particulars. Since that time I have received a most complete aparatus which has enabled me to proceed on the scale I originally proposed, and what is here offered, is the beginning of that work, being the measurement of an arc on the meridian, from which is deduced the length of a degree for the latitude 12° 32' which is nearly the middle of the arc.

THE triangles here mentioned are those only, from which the arc is obtained, and the base line, the soundation to the whole, is a measured line near the Sea Coast, an account of which is here subjoined.

SECTION I. AN ACCOUNT OF THE BASE LINE.

Some time had been taken up in examining the country best suited for this measurement, and at length a tract was found near St. Thomas's Mount, extremely well adapted for the purpose, being an entire stat, without any impediment for near eight miles, commencing at the race ground, and extending southerly. This being determined on, and the necessary preparations made, it was begun on the 10th of April, and completed on the 22d of May 1802.

Description of fixing objects in the alignement, and for taking elevations and depressions at the same time; but that instrument not having arrived, I thought it unnecessary to wait, particularly as the ground was so free from ascents and descents; I therefore used the same aparatus as I had formerly done, viz. the transit circular instrument and the levelling telescope sixed on a tripod with an elevating screw in the center. In all horizontal directions, this telescope sully answers the purpose, and as there has been no deviation from the level to exceed 26' 30" excepting in one single chain, and those cases but very sew, I feel entirely satisfied as to the accuracy of the whole measurement.

The chain which was made use of is the one I formerly had, and I was fortunate enough to receive another from England, made also by the late Mr. Ramsden, and this having been measured off by the standard in London, when the temperature was 50° by Fahrenheit's thermometer, it afforded me an advantage of correcting for the effects of expansion, a circumstance in which I was by no means satisfied in the former measurement. In order, therefore, to have a standard at all times to refer to, I have reserved the new chain for that purpose, and use the old one only

as a measuring chain, by which means I can always determine the cor-

have been staticing the coffers; that is, they were all of the Greek

By referring to the annexed table, it will appear that there are only four angles of depression, and two of elevation, taken in the whole length of the base; the rest are all horizontal measurements, and many of them consist of a great number of feet before it became necessary either to fink or elevate the coffers, when that was done, great care was taken to mark the termination of the preceding measurement, and for that purpose a small tripod was used in the shape of a T, with three iron feet to run into the ground, the straight side of which T was placed in the line. Another fmall T was made with its top also parallel to the line, and fixed upon the large one so as to slide to the right or left, and upon that again was a long piece of brass made to slide out at right-angles to the top of the T; in the middle of this brafs a mark was made, which was brought to a plumb line let fall from the arrow, and the height from the brass to the arrow was noted down; when the fucceeding chain was laid, which was to commence the new level or hypothenuse, the arrow was then brought, so that a plumb line freely suspended, would coincide with the mark on the brass slider. The height of that chain above the brass was likewise taken, by comparing those two heights the elevation or depression of the new commencement was determined, and those differences noted in the seventh and eighth columns of the table. The differences of the two aggregates contained in those columns, when applied to the ascents and descents, will therefore shew how much one extremity of the base is above the other. The height of the chain at the commencement and termination of the whole was of course taken from the ground. The was the was a second with the second was a second with the second with the second was a second with the second with the second was a second with the second wit

ALL the other particulars respecting this measurement are nearly the

preserved with great care during the time I was objetving

fame as that in the Myfoor country, a full account of which has been published in a former volume of the Afiatick Researches. Some little alterations have been made in the coffers; that is, they were all of the same length, and the whole together about ninety-fix feet, fo as to give room for the pickets with the brass register heads. Their fides continued to the ends, and their depth on each fide was the fame, for the purpose of being turned every day that they might not fall into a curve by their own weight, and that of the chain. I also used tripods with elevating screws in the center, for supporting the coffers, making no other use of pickets than for the drawing and weight posts, and for carrying the register heads. The top of each fland on tripod was a thick circular piece of wood fixed firmly to the end of the elevating fcrew, and a flip of board was fastened across the circular top, screwed into the center, and allowed to turn round. When the ends of two coffers were placed on the top piece, this flip of board was admitted into the under part of each, and prevented their fliding off, a precaution that was very necessary on account of the high winds.

The point of commencement of the base was had by dropping a plummer from the arrow of the chain suspended by a silken thread. A long but small bamboo picket had been driven into the ground till its top was level with the surface, and the cavity of the bamboo was such as just to receive the plummet; and when the first chain was in the coffers, drawn out by the weight at the opposite end, it was adjusted by the singer screw at the drawing post in such a manner that the plummet might hang suspended over the cavity of the bamboo, while the thread was applied to the arrow. This was done within the observatory tent, that the plumb line might hang freely without being disturbed by the wind. The bamboo picket was preserved with great care during the time I was observing for the latitude, and was then projected under the frame of the zenith scctor. When the

covered the picket, and in that state it remained until the measurement was completed.

Laboration assumed and to smoot out that

Ar the termination of the base, being the end of a chain, one of the large hooped pickets was driven into the ground till its top was on a level with the coffers and under the arrow of the chain. The opposite end being adjusted by the singer screw, the arrow at the leading end was nearly the center of the picket. A mark was made and a small round headed nail was driven in till it was level with the surface. The chain was again applied, and the arrow cut the center of the nail. The picket had been driven upwards of two and a half feet into very hard clay.

But that those extremities may be preserved, in case they may hereafter be referred to, I erected small masses of hewn stone eight feet square at the bottom and four at the top, the axis of those masses being made to pass through the points of commencement and termination, and in order that this might be correctly done, the following method was used.

I MARKED out the foundation of the building, fo that the picket might be as nearly in the center of it as possible. The earth was dug about a foot deep reserving space round the center untouched. After the soundation was brought to a level with a surface, the first tier of stones was laid, being one foot in height. The inner part was then filled up with stones and mortar, taking particular care at the same time that the center was not touched. The next tier of stones was then laid, which was six seet square and one foot high. This also was filled in with great care, and some cement and bricks put gradually round the picket. After that the last tier was laid which was four feet square and also one foot high. When these

flones were firmly fixed small filken threads were drawn across each other in the diagonals of the square. A plummer (pointed) was then suspended from the point of intersection of those threads, and they were so moved that the point of the plummer coincided with the center of the nail in the picket. The position of these threads being determined, marks were inserted in the stone. The cavity was then fill dup, and a square thick stone was fixed in the middle of the mass, having a circular place of about sour inches diameter, sunk half an inch deep, and whose center was marked by a point. This point, by moving the stone, and again applying the silken threads was brought to coincide with the point of intersection, and then it was firmly fixed and pointed.

Precisely the same kind of building was erected at the beginning of the base, but in place of having a picket in the center, four large hooped ones were driven into the ground, forming a square of about ten feet, the small bamboo picket being intended as the center. Silken threads were then drawn across from the diagonal pickets, and so moved, that the plummet first used, suspended from the point of intersection of the threads, might drop into the cavity of the bamboo. That being adjusted, lines were drawn on the tops of the pickets where the threads had been extended. The building was then erected, and the center both of the second and last tier, was marked by the intersection of those threads when applied to the marks on the pickets.

an available of the and a fall bleeting to vary band.

Such has been the mode of defining the extremities of the line. The buildings are well built of stone and some brick, and will remain for years, if not injured by acts of violence. They are intended to receive an instrument on the top and the points of reference if it should even be thought necessary to have recourse to them.

EXPANSION OF THE CHAINS AND THEIR COMPARATIVE LENGTHS.

As I wished to be satisfied with respect to the expansion of each of the chains, and their comparative lengths, I made a course of experiments for both purposes. I had accordingly the coffers arranged near the ground, that the drawing and weight posts might be driven deep and firmly fixed. Both the chains were then put into the coffers, and the comparisons made as follows:

April 10, at fix P. M. the temperature by a mean of five thermometers was 85°,6.

THREE comparisons were made, and the old chain exceeded the new one, nine divisions of the micrometer screw.

April 10, at fix A. M. the temperature by a mean of five thermometers was 79°.

Four comparisons were made, and the old chain exceeded the new one nine divisions. Therefore at the commencement, the old chain exceeded the new one in length, nine divisions of the micrometer.

May 23. After the base was completed, the temperature by a mean of five thermometers, was 86°.

By a mean of five comparisons, the old chain exceeded the new one - 10,65 divisions.

24. The temperature by a mean of five thermometers was 84°.

And a mean of fix comparisons, gave the excess of the old chain above the new one - 11,08 do.

25. The temperature was 87°.

And a mean of two comparisons, gave - 11,00 do.

Mean 10,86 do.

Hence it appears, that at the conclusion of the base, the old chain was longer than the new one, 11 divisions of the micrometer very nearly, so that it had increased from being in use, 2 divisions, or -3- inches.

THESE experiments were made with great attention, and when either chain was stretched out by the weight, it was carefully brought into a line in the coffers.

we will the temperature to a mean

As I had referved the new chain for a standard, and knowing the temperature at which it had been measured off in London, I considered it an object to determine its rate of expansion and contraction compared with the thermometers which had been in use in measuring the base, since these were but common ones, and might probably differ from those made use of by General Roy and others, who had determined the expansion of metals by the pyrometer; and I was further induced to do this, from feeing the great variation among them, when the degree of heat became above one hundred, which it generally was in the coffers every day before I left off. To avoid those irregularities arising from the expansions being checked by the refistance from the pressure on the coffers, I chose the times of funrise, and from one to two o'clock P. M. for making the observations. Sunrife in India is generally the coolest time of the twenty-four hours, and the chain had during the night, on account of the uniform state of temperature, full time to free itself from any relistance. At the hottest part of the day likewise there is a considerable time when the thermometers are nearly stationary, which will afford time for the refistance in the coffers to be overcome, and it is necessary to pay particular attention to this circumflance, for the chain will be perceived to lengthen often for every half hour after the thermometers are at their highest.

I HAD made a great many experiments prior to the measurement, but found great irregularity, partly from not attending sufficiently to the above eircumstance, and partly from the unsteadiness of the drawing post, not withstanding it was driven deep into very hard ground, and secured, as I thought, by having large stones pressed close on each side of it. To remedy this latter inconvenience, I had a staple driven into a brick wall, into which the iron was fixed with the adjusting screw for the chain, after which I perceived a persect coincidence with the arrow and mark on the brass head, except what arose from the trisling expansion and contraction of the iron which held the chain. I then began a new course of experiements on both the chains, and the results were as follows:—

Experiments for determining the expansion of the new Chain.

Month.	Time.	Mean of 5 Thermo- meters.	change of	No. divi- fions.	Total ex- pansion and contraction.	Total due to	REMARKS.
June 4:	2 P. M.	116,4	981510	nom	Inches	Inches.	4
201 10	⊙ rife.	83	33,4	51	,245157	,00734	Weather clear and windy
nen they	2 P. M.	123,8	40,8	64	,307648	,00754	during the whole of thefe
6.	orife.	82,5	41,3	64	,307648	,00744	
14.	⊙ rife.	80	Faut A	E 100	o sum us	BELLEY	at that time, yet that
The said	2 P. M.	7.	39,1	60	,288420	,00737	-232203
15.	Orise.	81,4	37.7	57	,273999	,00727	A CHARLES THE STREET
Trinozir	2 P.M.	121,9	40,5	63	,302841	.00747	"First reductions from
212//16	o rife.	79.7	(42,2)	66	317262	,00752	level, were unide by nur
211,000	e od bi	Jaw A	W A	o fee	Mean	00,742	minimed, vizi by culling

feet by the new chain; but this would produce no fentible error in the carled fign of a very finall angle, and on that account titele decimals were not alter into the computation, which was thought I is necessary, fine the

Experiments for determining the expansion of the old Chain.

1802. Month.	Tiene.	Mean of 5 Thermo-	Change of tempera-	o. divi- fions.	Fotal ex- pansion and contraction.	Total due to	REMARKS.
Carried and the		a contract to the contract to	0 5 3	Z	152 otni	wh m	Arthur was the distribute Heliste
Jane 8.	o rife.	83,5		100	4.500.00		and unived vel adough
+6) i vi (0)	2 P.M.	110,3	26,8	42	,201894	,00749	Claude marken and Link
9.	o rife.	85,2	25,1	40	,192280	,00766	CREATER STATE OF THE PERSON OF
wall in	1 P. M.	iro	24,8	39	,187473	,00755	winds during the whole of these experiments.
12.	orise.	80,2	the ent	diiv	20110 3131	(80.123	glad a naturated in mint
	2 P.M.	The state of the s	27.9	42	,201894	,00724	orall head, except tale
Mindia.	The second second	83,3	24,8	38	,182666	Chill A 20	bled shid a non subicit held
ANTERIO .	2 P.M.	111,3	28	42	,201894	,00721	ments on both the chair
14.	orise.	80	31,3	46	,221122	,00706	
					Mean	,00737	

It appears from these results, that the expansion due to 1° of the thermometer, is less than what has been allowed by experiments made in England, but this might arise from the thermometers, as they were such as could be purchased in the shops, and therefore most probably not of the best kind. Great care however was taken to watch the moment when they stood the highest, and though they varied from one another considerably at that time, yet that variation was generally the same in equal temperatures.

THE reductions from the hypothenuses to bring them to the horizontal level, were made by numbering the feet from the old chain as they were measured, viz. by calling 32 chains 3200 feet, which would be 3200,115 feet by the new chain; but this would produce no sensible error in the versed sign of a very small angle, and on that account these decimals were not taken into the computation, which was thought less necessary, since the

abol to Irde fevel outs

whole deduction did not amount to three inches. Neither was any notice taken of the different heights of the hypothenuses or levels one above another, as that difference was too trifling to affect a length of thirty or forty chains. The base has therefore been considered at the same distance from the center of the earth, before it was reduced to the level of the sea, and the perpendicular height of the south extremity, which I have considered as nearly the general height, has been taken for that purpose. That perpendicular height was obtained by comparing the south with the north extremity, and the height of the latter was determined by observations made at the race stand and on the sea beach, where allowance has been made for the terestrial refraction. The following is the manner in which it has been determined:

On the top of the race stand, the under part of the stag on the beach was observed to be depressed 9' 30'; and at the beach, the top of the race stand was elevated 7' 15'. When the instrument was on the platform of the race stand, the axis of the telescope was on a level with the top of the railing, which was observed from the beach. But at the beach the axis of the telescope was four feet below the part of the slag which had been observed.

THE horizontal distance from the station on the stand to that on the beach is=19208 feet. Then as 19208: 4:: Rad: tan. 43', which must therefore be added to the observed depression of the slag—Hence 9' 30'+ 43'=10' 13' is the depression of the axis of the telescope on the beach, observed from the race stand.

Now the flation on the beach is nearly at right-angles to the meridian, therefore by allowing 60957 fathoms, to the degree, 19208 feet will give

an arc of 3' 9' very nearly, which is the contained arc. And the difference between the depression and elevation being 2' 58', we have 3' 5'-2' 58' 5', 5 for the terestrial refraction. Hence, since the observed elevation of the stand, plus balf, the contained arc would give the angle subtended by the perpendicular height of the stand above the telescope at the beach, where there no refraction, we shall have 7', 15' + 3' 9' - 5',5 = 8' 44' for the true angle subtended by the perpendicular height which being taken as tangent, to the horizontal distance and Radius, we have R: tan. 8' 44':: 19208: 48,797 feet the height required. But the axis of the telescope on the beach was determined by levelling down to the water, to be 21,166 feet above the sea. Which added to the above, give 69,963 feet for the perpendicular height of the top of the stand above the level of the sea.

Now the top of the race stand was determined by levelling to be 31,25 feet above the north extremity of the base; which taken from the other, leaves 38,713 for the north extremity of the base above the sea, which extremity being by the table 22,96 feet above the south extremity, we shall have 15,753 feet for the perpendicular height of the south extremity of the line above the level of the sea; and from this height the length of the base has been reduced.

THE angle s of elevation and depression were taken by the circular instrument, from a mean of several observations, and the error of collimation was corrected by turning the transit over, and the horizontal plate half-round. But the weath er was rather dull during the whole of these operations.

TABLE. Containing the particulars of the measurement of a base line near St. The mas's Mount, commencing in latitude 13',00',29',59 N. and

extending 40006 4418 feet South Westerly making an angle with the meridian 0° 10′36. The first column contains the number of hypothenuse or measured distances. The second the length of each in sect. The third the angles of elevation and depression (which each hypothenuse makes with the horizon). The fourth the quantities to be subtracted from the respective hypothenuse to reduce it to the horizon. The fifth the perpendicular ascents and descents to each hypothenuse. The sixth the commencement in inches of every hypothenuse above or below the termination of the one preceding; and the seventh contains the mean temperature during the respective measurement.

f the	h of n feet.		ons from		dicular.	from th	ncement ne last.	Thermo-	REMARKS.
No. of the	Length of	and depref- fions.	pothen.	Ascents.	Descents.	above Inches.	below Inches.	Means 5 Therr meters.	KEMAKAS.
Will		10 1 1	TE PE						00021
4	600	0 19 40	,00984	346.	3,4325	25,5		86,6	Commenced the
2	500	0 26 00	,01430	them	3,7815	135-1		81,9	40th April 1802.
8	2100	0 26 30	,06237		10,1878	2,5	E JW	84,5	007 57.0
4	300	Level.	Sun-sed	10,7	O DOM	2,37		94,5	COD - 20 .
5	600	do.	Service in	3/5		200	7.37	ALC: NO. BOT	34 3500
6	100	do.	10,01			2,75		90,4	BEAT THE
7	400	do.	27			5,75		95,3	gons Da
8	500	do.	0.0			1,12		82,2	pare ye
9	100	do.		5,8		5,0	800	91	o outsit us
10	400	do.	2,1			4,0		93,2	000 000
11	300	do.	2,72	19	-	Balley	7,25	OF RUIN WA	ques e
12	300	0 20 30	,00534		1,7890		8,25	100000000000000000000000000000000000000	Out out
13	100	Level.	7,0	an la			10,0	90	In the water.
14	100	3 02 30	,14088	5,3062		V2 10	8,5	06	0011 (f)
15	100	Level.	45			8,		107,4	Bank of a Tank.
16	100	A STATE	Lane.	T T	1000	DOME?	40,87	105,8	dy Cuo
17	200	A State	-	1,01				82,2	I Spex Da
18	200							83,4	

or the	h of feet.	Angles of	ons from	respen	dicular.		ncement he laft.	Thermo- ters.	a goldmeta	
hypoth.	Length each in f	and depref-	each hy- pothen.	The state of	Descents.	above Inches.	below Inches.	Means 5 The meters	REMARK	S.
٥	inter the	0111	lua:	buase i	Wall of	pub Ba	e mile	vols 1	he angles to	
19	500	Level.	-	Par	10-5	of an inert	6,12		T. L. C. L.	
20	,300	do.		200		TITLE	5,25	92,9	VII SHIPMICA	
21	700	do.	NAME OF STREET	The state of	31 5734	12,25	PERM	87,5	SALLEGIS	
22	300	do.	paragran	To be	BE SELE	Dieb 7	7,87	93,7	elecillaria e	ď
23	500	do.	Periodi	3)(AE	- May	ment le	17,5	92,8	on-monthum.	3
24	900	do.	Paista	a reins	win min	one ye	10,12	and a second	sult to por	
25	400	do.			and the spa	uleurs	4.75		aminub on	
26	500	do.					10,62			
27	300	do.	A-1 -14	THE REAL PROPERTY.	A THE	961 1.0	11	93.5	1 18	
28	400	do.	teral ii]			eural A	12	86,8	Den E d	A.DOR
29	1200	do.	-700 min ()				11,37	88,9	Packel R L	F
30	600	do.		7.		3,5		86,7	0	
31	1700	do.		ilea	761-8 J	9,37	Laww.	90,6	The 2 chain	
32	700	do.			1876	4	051 1.0	85,4	the Ching	25
33	200	do.		6.5	(02.01)	10,75	desce.	91,3	road.	6
34	800	do, g		10,8		A	MILE	7.41007	NA PROPERTY	A
35	400	do,	7:37			7,5	1075	91,5	600	ā
36	2000		- 10	340		-2	12,75	100	tot	
45	2100	do. e		5.3			15	90	COA	7
37	3200	do.		*41		00	6,9	91,5	590	S.
	72. 24	0 04 50	,00320	4,4991		8,8	. 0	90,1	001	2
39	900	Level.		0/4			1,8	96,9	975	2.5
40	800	do.	1976				11,4	90,5	605	
41	PRICE	do.	8,2	. 0	1,759	-	1000s	93,7		n z
42	1400	do,	0,00		1		6,7	93.4.	The same of the	1
43	1100	do	5,8		The last	5,306	2,8	90,9	THE PERSON NAMED IN	T.
44	500	do.		3			3	98,4		
45	600	do.	0.01			2		88,7	2.12	
46	1200	do.	25,00		i	10,2	4	93.8		
		4-23	21,11	1	1	EVV		105	002 8	E

o. of the	th of n feet.	Angles of	Deducti- ons from	respendicular.		from the laft.		rmo-	10 15 Joosii _	
No. o	Length each in	and depref-	pothen.	Ascents,	Descents.	above Inches.	below Inches.	Means 5 Ther meters.	REMARKS.	
-	h 17.2	0 1	the of	O de	THE TO	2011		5	February 1	
47	3200	Level.	NAME OF THE OWNER, OWNE			7,2	20 20	93,1	ASSENIOUS X	
48	1400	do.	\$23 TOE	12017047	3 5555	7,2	ortzon	90,4	w act comit	
49	2200	do.				5,6	-	91,8	od flivy	
50	800	do.	H 5	be,	llim cs	7,3	fevel e	97.3	Completed the zad May, 1802.	
1	40000		,23593	9,8053	25,1908		272,06	90,8	21211/3 10024	

North above the south extremity 22,96 feet in perpendicular height.

AT the commencement, the old chain (with which the measurement was made) exceeded the new one by nine divitions of the micrometer, equal Therefore +0,043163 × 400 will be the measures in lengths of the new chain, equal

AT the conclusion, the old chain exceeded the new one by eleven divisions, consequently it had increased by wear two divisions of the micrometer = 0,0008 feet. Hence ,0008 × 400=0,1600 feet, is the correction for the wear, which add

WHENCE the apparent length of the base, will be 400,016020 lengths of the new chain, 101 STUTEVILLE TO 40001, 6020 The fum of all the corrections in column fourth for obtaining the horizontal distances, is 0,2359 feet, which must therefore be deducted.

And this will give the apparent horizontal length of the base, in terms of the new chain 400,013661 lengths, or The mean temperature for the whole base is 900, 8 and

40001,36661

the new chain was meafured off when the thermometer

flood at 50° hence to reduce the whole horizontal length to the standard temperature of 62°, the equation will be expressed by (90°, 8-50°) x 0,0074-(62°-50°) x 00,1837

Which reduced to the level of the sea will be,

- 40006,4823

Note, the quantity +,0074 inches is the expansion of the chain due to 10 of the thermometer as determined by my own experiments detailed in the annexed memoir. By General Roy's experiments with the pyrometer it was +,00763 inches.

THE quantity +,01237 inches is the expansion of 100 feet of brass, due to

By the experiments I made in the Mysore the expansion of the old chain was +,00725 inches due to 1°. By these experiments it is +,00737 inches, but I give the presence to the latter on account of the chains being fixed to the wall.

THE radius of curvature for reducing the base to the level of the sea, is assumed at 3448748 sathoms being the radius to the meridional circle on which one degree is computed to be 60191 in the latitude of 13°.

SECTION II. - OBSERVATIONS FOR DETERMINING THE ANGLE WHICH THE BASE LINE MAKES WITH THE MERIDIAN.

At the North end of the base latitude, - 13° 00 29", 59 N.

September 24th, on the evening the polar star when	un de la companya de	
at its greatest Eastern elongation was observed to		Die Statis
make an angle North Easterly with the base line		
produced,	1°	35 08, 7
The apparent polar distance of the star at that time		La Filipia
was 1° 4'4 40" 2 with which and the above la-	17419424	
titude, the computed azimuth was,		17 26 7
Therefore the line when produced Northerly will		47 25 , 7
make an angle with the meridian North Easterly,	0	10 11 0
September 26th, on the evening the angle North	0	12 17,0
Easterly with the base line produced was,	CON IN	
The apparent polar distance on that day was,	11.2	35 13 , 1
1° 4'4 39' 8 which will give the azimuth,		A THE DA
Therefore the angle between the line and meridian	1	47 25, 2
will be,	0	TO TO
September 30th, on the evening the angle was observed,		12 12, 1
The apparent polar distance for that day being		35 06 , 7
1° 4'4 38" 1 the azimuth will be,		Market State
Hence the angle by this observation is,		47 23 , 5
and the second s	0	12 16,8
AT THE SOUTH END OF THE BASE - Laitude	12	53 52, 8
October 7th. In the morning, the polar star when at		
its greatest western elongation, was observed to make		
an angle North Westerly with the base line produced	Y	59 36,9
The apparent polar distance at that time was 1° 44' 35,7,	WR'S	MAN AND A
and this with the above latitude will give the azimuth.	1	47 18, 2
Therefore the angle which this line produced, makes		Pinetical.
with the meridian North Easterly.	0	12 18, 7
And the mean of these four is	0	12 16,15

THE last observation was made under the most favorable circumstances, it being just day light; the slag-staff at the north extremity of the line was observed immediately after the star; and the morning being perfectly clear, no unsteadiness or uncertainty arose from the effects of the vapour, which had occasioned the difference between the angles on the 24th and 26th.

WHEN the observation was made on the 30th, a blue light was fixed at

SECTION III. COMMENCEMENT OF THE OPERATIONS FROM THE BASE. THE LARGE THEODELITE.

AFTER the completion of the lase line, there remained nothing of importance to be done until I received the large instrument, which arrived in the begining of September. I had however made an excursion down the sea coast, as far as Pondicherry, for the purpose of selecting the properest stations for determining the length of a meridional arc. This and the measurement of a degree at right-angles to the meridian I considered as the first object of this work, I accordingly lost no time in proceeding to accomplish these desiderata.

The instrument above alluded to was made by Mr. Cary, and is in most respect the same as that described by General Roy in the Philosophical Transactions for the year 1790, with the improvements made afterwards in the microscopes, and in an adjustment to the vertical axis, by which the circle can be moved up or let down by means of two capstan screws at the top of the axis. These are mentioned in the Philosophical Transactions for 1795, in the account of the trigonometical survey. By

the microscopes are once adjusted to minutes and seconds, on the limb of the instrument, the circle can always be brought back to the proper distance from them. Great attention however is necessary in bringing the axis down, so that the wires in each microscope being fixed at opposite dots on the limb, they may coincide with the same dots when the circle is turned half round, or made to move entirely round, and in a contrary direction to what it had been moved before; which latter method has been recommended by the maker. This circumstance respecting the axis should be most scrupulously attended to before the adjustment of the micrometers begin, so that when by arranging the lenses in such a manner that ten rovolutions of the micrometer may answer to ten minutes on the limb, and therefore one division to one second, the circle can always be brought to its proper height, by trying the revolutions of the micrometer,

In has however been found from experience, that unless in cases of very long and troublesome marches, it is not necessary to sink the axis. The carriage being performed altogether by men, there is not that jolting which any other mode of conveyance is subject to, and as I found, that a considerable time was taken up in adjusting the axis before the revolutions of the micrometers could be brought to their intended limits, I therefore laid it aside, unless under the circumstances above mentioned.

The semicircle of the transit telescope is graduated to 10' of a degree in place of 30', which was the case with the semicircle described by General Roy, and the micrometer to the horizontal microscope applied to this semicircle, making one revolution in two minutes, and sive revolutions for ten minutes on the limb; and the scale of the micrometer being divided into sixty parts, each part is therefore two seconds of the circle.

A NUMBER of experiments have been made for determining the error of the femicircle, and to afcertain the place of the fixed wire in the horizontal microscope, so as to divide the error. It has appeared in the event, that the telescope being in its right position, (that is, when the limb and microscope were on the left hand,) and the fixed wire placed at Zero on the semicircle, when the circle or limb of the theodelite was turned 180° in Azimuth, and the telescope turned over, the fixed wire was then distant from Zero on the opposite part of the arc by a mean of a great many observations 2' 57", the half of which is therefore the error. This half was carefully fet off from Zero by the moveable micrometer wire, and the fixed one brought to coincide with it. On the right application of this error, there will be 1'28", 5 to add to the elevations and fubtract from the depressions. The observations for determining this quantity were repeated at different times, and under the most favorable circumstances; the adjustments of the whole instrument being frequently examined, and the level applied to the telescope, reversed at most of the observations. For the line of collimation, as these corrections depend on having a well defined object, I fixed a bamboo upwards of a mile distant from the observatory tent, and tied round it feveral narrow stripes of black filk, one of which was near the horizontal wire when the axis of the telescope intersected the staff after being brought to a level by the bubble. Then the instrument being adjusted, and the telescope directed to the bamboo, being perfectly level, and the wire of the micrometer in the piece brought to the interfection of the crofs wires, the angular distance to the mark on the bamboo was measured by the runs of that micrometer, and the wire brought back to the point of intersection of the other wires. The circle was then turned half round and the telescope reserved or put again into the same Ys. The levelling adjustment was then made, and the angular distance from the intersection of the wires to the black mark again taken, half the difference between which and the former was of course the error of collimation. This error was repeatedly reduced till it became very small, half by the singer screw of the clamp to the semicircle, and half by the adjusting screws to the levelling rods. After that, the remaining error was repeatedly examined and found to be 2,36 to be subtracted from the elevations and added to the depressions when the telescope is in the ordinary position, or when the semicircle and microscope are on the left hand; but vice versa when in the contrary position. These errors of the semicircle and line of collimation being opposite, the result from comparison will be, "That when elevations or depressions are taken with the semicircle, 1'26" must be added to the former, and subtracted from the latter."

And that when the elevations and depressions are taken by the micrometer in the eye piece 2,36 must be deducted from the elevations and added to the depressions.

THE micrometer in the focus of the eye glass of the transit telescope is the same in all respects as the one mentioned by General Roy, that is to say, the circle or scale is divided into one hundred divisions, and there is a nonius fixed to the upper part of the telescope, which defines the revolutions of the micrometer as far as ten for the elevations and ten for the depressions. The following experiments have been made with the same marked bamboo, for ascertaining the value of these divisions, and it has been found that seven revolutions and 61,4 divisions are equal to ten minutes on the limb of the semicircle, so that one division is equal ,788 to of a second.

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TABLE of experiments for determining the valuation of the revolutions and divisions on the micrometer in the eye-piece of the telescope.

Months.	Micrometer Divisions.	No. of feconds.	Value of 1 Division:	Month.	Micrometer Divisions.	No. of feconds	Value of 1 Division.
Tilling	d d	beiter han	edb/dd/yes	and a lamout	d	Se and	10 mm / (1)
Nov. 26.	994.5	783,5	0,788	Nov. 26.	1000	780	0,780
	994	787	0,782	in white a	Sead no	800	0,800
	994	773	0,777	Stankenara	in large	787	0,78
	1005	A TOWN WORK	0,788	THE MOLITER	Street Street	794	0,79
- 12000	1002	794	0,794	THE MOVE HEAD	apr. Ser	788	0,78
		Mean -	0,788	The Const	HIST ARTE	782	0,78
			- Tulker		1000	788	0,78

Hence one fecond will be equal - - - - - 1,282 divisions,

One minute - - - - - - - - - 76,92 ditto,

Ten minutes - - - - - - - - - - - 769,2 ditto.

SECTION IV.

Angles taken with the large theodelite between 27th September 1802, and 13th of April 1803.

AT THE NORTH END OF THE BASE.

Between	And	Observed Angles.		
South end of the base,	- Mount station,	2/200) III	91 09 04
9	Perumbauk hill,		H Based	09 47 58,9
Perumbank hill, -	- Mount station.	- ingrise s	attered a	81 21 05,2

AT THE SOUTH END OF THE BASE.

Between		And		06)	erved Angles.
No ab and of the back					0 / //
North end of the base,		Mount station, -		307	11 19 32,5
44 . 0					113 56 47,3
Mount station,	-	ditto,	100	2.00	102 37 14,8
596 5 4 MA					
	AT T	HE MOUNT STATION.			
North end of the base,	-	South end of the base,	2	2	77 31 23
- New 27 - Line	- (1)	Perumbank hill, -	- 0	+,00	88 06 38,2
South end of the base,		ditto, -	2		10 35 12,9
Perumbauk hill, -	-	Mungot station,		-	92 30 03,6
989 75 591 *		Mullapode hill,	3	-	63 30 18,2
88 48 68 5		M. Communication			
	AT	PERUMBAUK HILL.			
North end of the base,	Mprr	South end of the bafe,	9		56 15 26
100 31 00 11 -		Mount flation,	- 49	-,00	10 32 16,8
South end of the base,	- 2	ditto,		-	66 47 42
Mungot flation, E	-			- Bank	36 58 15,1
(% to on 16		Coonoowaucum hill, .		2 11	59 43 12,9
23 88 08 -	-	Mullapode hill, -	2	-	42 52 13,9
Mullapode hill,		Coonoowaucum hill,	-	4	16 50 59
THE RESERVE OF THE PARTY OF THE	JANE	MUSTARIUMED TO			42 40 may 61
01:00:00 %	AT	MUNGOT STATION.			
Perumbauk hill, =	.02	Cognoowaucum hill,	-	-	88 03 47,6
		Mullapode hill, -			79 08 56,4
		THE SHAREST TA			
Mullapode hill,	-	Tandray Station,		- 4	124 40 242
Mannoor station, -	. 10	ditto,		. (6)	75 25 54,8
Mount station,		Perumbauk hill, -		-	50 31 41,7
Mullopode hill, -	-	Munneer Station, -	45	-	49 14 29,4
	#				The T - 200

AT MULLAPODE HILL.

Between			And		Observed Angles.
Perumbauk hill,	-	-	Commence hill		0 / 4
The second secon			Coonoowaucum hill,		05 -5 -/1-
Cooncowaucum hill,	-	7	Munnoor station,	The state of	- 81 21 03,0
Tandray station,	-		ditto, -		- 52 53 20,0
			Mungot station,	P. S.	- 28 17 36,7
			PART ARMEN ALLE		,
A LOUIS TO THE	4	AT	MUNNOOR STATIC	on.	Tent to be after
Mungot station,	=		Coonoowaucum hill,	-	- 100 27 11,4
(P. 11 10 10 10 10			Mullapode, -		- 49 34 32,4
			Tandray Station,		- 44 15 34,9
Mullapede hill,	ē	-	ditto, -		- 93 50 05,9
			Coonoowaucum hill,	-	- 50 52 39
7					0- 0- 25
			TANDRAY STATI	ON.	
Mount Online				and the same	Patricia Bushings
Mungot station,	-		Munnoor Station,	-	- 60 18 30,7
有是是		*	Mullapode hill,	-	- 27 02 00,1
Munnoor Station,	- ~				- 33 16 30,8
Mullapode hill,	2	- 0	Urrumbaucum hill,	100	- 94 00 01,7
21 23 25			Poonauk hill,		80 48 38,8
1 08 ST -		- 5	Communication 1:		diffe shotalled
		AT U	TRRUMBAUCUM HI	LL.	
Mullapode hill,		- 101	Tandray station,	4.5	= 43 02 50
			Poonauk hill,		
Iventimes +			allfaleshawallast.		111 52 20,9
		A	T PONAUK HILL.		
Mullapode bill,	- 2	3	Urrumbaucum hill,		STATE SHOW THE
		7.	Tandray station,		- 39 25 15,6
			Maumdoor hill,	+ -	27 13 47,4
			Contraction (e.g.		49 19 0,46

AT	DO	O 3.7	100	****		40.00
AL	10	UP IN	25	UK	HIT	To Book

Between	And	Observed Angles
Allacoor Hill,	Padree station, - Urrumbaucum hill, -	23 52 57,5 32 18 50,7
E'm1 99 41	AT ALLACOOR HILL.	Permasell bill, -
Poonauk hill	- Padree station, - Urrumbaucum hill, -	- 91 22 13 - 110 08 22,3
8,00 13,481 00,6	STALLON.	
Pronauk hill,	- Allacor Hill,	64 44 52,6
	AT MULLAPODE HILL.	
Poonauk hill, -	Tandray station, -	71 39 26,3
141 75 24 -	Urrambaucum hill, -	- 28 42 12,6
E117 60 63 -	Maumdoor hill,	58 02 19
Tandray flation,	· - Urrumbaucum hill,	- 42 57 07,9
Perumbaucum hill,	- Mowbray's house, TA -	- 85 17 00
Maumdoor hill,	- Carrangooly hill,	2 45 48 00,5
	AT MAUMDOOR HILL.	
Mullapode hill,	Poonauk hill, Will 2	74 = 72 38 40
6-15 Et 15 E-1	Carrangooly hill.	A CONTRACTOR OF THE PROPERTY O
Carrongooly hill, -	- Woritty hill,	3 0 13
		44 40 21,0
	AT CARRANGOOLY HILLA	
Mullapode hill,	- Maumdoor hill,	- Rolla 6 (hazaray 2
Maumdoor hill,	Wortty hill,	- 80 37 28,3
Permacoil hill,	Lind bedino, gell file	
- 51 83 46.	Vellungeaud hill,	2 36 40 28,2
1.05.05.10	Will House and the same of the	New flation on red hill,
		1017

AT WORITTY DILL.

	AT WORLLIL MILLS				
Bet ween	And	Offerved Angles.			
A A R	- Februar Resion.	different little			
Carangeoly hill, -	Maumdocr hill, -	- 54 36 13,1			
Carlotte and the same	Permacoil bill,	- 109 25 09.4			
Permacoil hill, -	Coonum bill, -	- 17 46 10,3			
	Marian Wilson	William Same Ser			
\$1 II I .	AT PERMACOIL HILL.				
Woritty hill, -	- Carrangeely hill, -	- 42 01 25,1			
	Coonum hill,	- 134 51 00,6			
Coonum hill, -	- aft flag on red hill, -	- 53 13 11,8			
Vellungeaud hill, -	- Carrangeoly hill, -	- 28 58 23,4			
Vellungeaut till,	New flation on red hill,	- 98 29 08,8			
a.c Ostion	- ditto ditto, -	- 15 57 39,8			
Mooratan station,	Chengeaud Station, -	- 42 57 14,4			
	_ ditto ditto, -	- 29 29 41,3			
Mylum station,	all a contact	Carling Ballery			
0.19 18 1	AT VELLUNGCAUD HILL.				
	- Carrangoely hill, -	- 114 21 15,4			
Permacoil hill,	New station on red hill,	- 37 15 17,4			
	illes accompanies				
ATTH	LE NEW STATION ON RED HILL.				
P. C.	Williams and bill	- 44 15 33,8			
Est mater, anti-	36 Ostina	- 99 25 04,4			
State Walds to	Artory areas marrows				
Malach to .	AT MOORATAN STATION.				
Chergonyd Ration -	- Permaccil hill, -	- 85 13 36,0			
Serve of	Tripandepoorum hill,				
- O Committee hill	- aft flag on red hill,	- 81 48 30			
Pigo of go	Chengeaud flation, -				
New flation on red hill,	And the second s	- 64 37 21.4			
New Hation on reu mill,		Control of the Contro			

AT THE FIRST FLAG ON RED HILL.

TODAO OLE BELLEVINE CASE SE	And	Observed Angles.
Coonum hill,	- Permacoil hill,	- 38 54 56,4
	AT COONUM HILL.	
Permacoil hill,	Woritty hill,	- 27 22 53.3
	Station and Manager Manager	
ift flag on red hill, Chengcaud flation,	- Station near Mooratan, ditto, -	- 76 02 09,3
42	AT MALUM STATION	
Permacoil hill	- Chengeaud Station, -	- 129 25 52,8
the Day 4000 A.	Mocratan station, -	- 73 09 50,7
THE PERSON NAMED IN	Woritty hill,	- 46 21 11,4
The Nie	AT CHENGCAUD STATION.	
Permaccil bill,	- Mylum Station, -	- 21 04 26,9
No. of the last	Mocratan station,	- 51 49 03,5
Trivandepoorum bill,	- ditto,	- 66 08 35,2
Cocnum hill;	ditto,	- 49 24 35.75
AT THE STATION O	F OBSERVATION AT TRIVANDE - Chengeaud Station, -	- 49 08 53.9
Referring light near Tri	onum-]	
baucum, -	Polar star, west elongation,	
N TO THE RESERVE AND	February 3, 11 29 43	A CONTRACTOR OF THE PARTY OF TH
TO A LOCAL DESIGNATION OF THE PARTY OF THE P		1.9
THE RESERVE AND ADDRESS OF THE PARTY OF THE		1.33 2.5
A STATE OF THE STA	THE PERSON NAMED AND POST OFFICE AND PERSON NAMED AND POST OFFICE AND PARTY OF THE PERSON NAMED	2
the court is a will and only	THE RESERVE AND ADDRESS OF THE PARTY OF THE	,6
The state of the state of		3,67
Referring light near Tri	Blue light on Meeratan station,	7 57 45,36
	W 2	

THE angles in general have been taken three and four times, and every time that the object was observed, both microscopes were read off thrice, and two separate field books kept for making out the angles. What are here recorded, are the means taken from the two books. In case a difference in those angles, noticed at the time, left any reason to suspect an error in the instrument, the division between the dots was carefully examined, as well as those to the right and left, and if any error was discovered, allowance was made accordingly.

SECTION V. TRIANGLES.

North End of the Base from the South End of the Base 40006,4.

No.	Stations.	Observed Angles, Diff. Sph	er. Error. Angles for Diffances
1. P.ZE	North end of the base, South end of the base, Mount station,	2 2 -11- 1-01	91 09 04,2 11 19 32,6 77 31 23,2 >58 180 00 00
Part of	SU GE MO	ount flation from	
		South 6	end of the base, 40965,8
	North end of the bafe	South	9 47 58,8 113 56 47,2 56 15 14

North End of the Base from Perumbauk Hill 43971,8.

_	The second secon		81			A CONTRACT	031	
No.	Station.	Observed	Angles.	Diff.	Spher. Excess.	Error.	Angles for calculation.	Diffances in feet.
	PANCE NO MAN	0					0 / 1	
4	North end of the base,	81 2	1 05,2	-,03	discountry	burn	81 21 05,1	3900
III.	Perrumbauk hill, -	10 2	2 16.8	02	ob to I		10 20 168	millaus.
hat	Mount station,							
	serpalaris (A. Jahan)							The state of the s
		100 0	0 00,2	,00	,08	+,1	180	
	torollad distance to	Campaig	Hot au	[No	rth end	of the	base, -	8046,7
Torse	Mou	nt Itation	from	Per	umbauk	hill,	and amount	43495,4
DRUG	of soir of boundaries	3 75 370	10000	0 10	ON OUR	1 100	NO THE DA	
South End of the Base from Mount Station 40965 8.								bealth
IIIOII	The second secon		"				0 / 1	EXIVE
2017	South end of the base,	102 37	14,8	-,06	the Total	I	02 37 14,7	וביפורויי
IV.	Mount station,	10 35	12,9	-,02	mi ndi	111	10 25 12.0	
orla-m	Perumbauk hill,	0. 0	0	-,01	oth made		66 47 32,4	
	ions the feedal and						80 4/ 3=,4	
								ALIE CONTRACTOR OF THE PARTY OF
4	lunco from the file	Perumbaul	from	Sou	ith end	of the	bafe,	8189,2
T *331	ations are to contine	ndo alli	Hour	Mo	unt stati	on,	mind husto	43495.5
Blub	Green'S II SAR LINE D	mediant.	15 21 2	COV.	-			-0 -0 010

It appears from examining the above triangles, that there is a difference in the distance from the north end of the base and Mount station, by the first and second triangles, and also a difference in the distance from the south end of the base to Perumbauk hill. It may be necessary to notice here, that there was great difficulty in taking all these angles, on account of the very thick vapour which constantly sloated near the surface of the slat where the base line runs, almost immediately after day-light, to very near the time of sun-setting. All the angles, and particularly at the north and south end of the base line, have been repeatedly taken, and the only time when the slag-staff

Principal hills - - - g6192, Mount flation, - - - 23886,8

Monte finition from

appeared distinctly, was in the morningsof the 7th of October, when I ob-

IT was discovered, that at Perumbauk hill, there had been an error in reading off the fouth end of the base, most probably of 10 from the micrometers, as all the angles which had a reference to that point, exceeded, what they ought to have been, by ten or twelve seconds. In consequence of this difagreement, I chose to take the supplemental angle in the second and fourth triangles, after the other angles had been corrected. The distance of the north end of the base from Perumbauk, as determined in the second triangle, being taken as a base in the third tringle, where in the three angles have been observed, to determine the distance from Perumbauk to the Mount, and from the north end of the base to the Mount, it appears that the latter distance comes out within 0,4 of a foot to what had been brought by the first triangle; and that the distance from the fouth end of the base to Perumbauk hill, derived from the second and fourth triangles, differ only ,14 of a foot. The distance from the Mount to Perumbauk being that from which all the operations are to commence, I wished to be as particular as possible in determining it, and the results from the third and fourth triangles make it 43495,4 and 43495,5, differing only one-tenth of a foot.

Mount flation from Perumbauk Hill 43495.4.

No.	Station.	Yay h	Observed Angles.	Diff.	Spher. Excefs.	Error.	Angl	es for	Distance in feet.
SIM	at 2 Set Marially	15000	0 , ,	/	a Line	BURN	•	111	1100
	Mount Station,	-	92 30 03,6	-,18	auth 1	1100	92 3	0 03,4	. 2007
V.	Perumbauk hill,		36 58 15,1	-,08	an fram	- asti	36 5	8 15,	i deni
	Munget Station,		50 31 41,7	-,08	4		50 3	1 41,6	Stantad
			180 0 0,4	-,34	,'3	+,1	180		
		Mu	ngot flation from	-	rumbauk		-		56292
		Mu	nger station from	M	ount sta	tion,	-		3388

Perumbauk Hill from Mungot Station 55292,1.

Nr.	Station.	Observed Angles.	Diff.	Spher. Excess.	Error.	Angles for 1	Diffances in feet.
V1.	Perumbauk hill Mungot station, - Mullapode hill, -	42 52 13,9 79 08 56,4 57 58 51,5	-,25	: 0 : 0		4 ² 5 ² 13,3 79 08 55,7 57 58 51	10
	7000	180 0 01,8	The State of the Local	,59	+1,4	Ciliconness (Sprint)	Ma Jamy
	м	ullapede hill from	-	rumbauk ungot Ac			65 205, 45 169,
	Perumbauk	Hill from M	ullap	ode H	11 65	205,2.	ata
3/2012	17100 02 (200)	1	10 a	you			西京区
1913	Perumbaucum hill,	16 50 59	+,3	100		16 50 59.5	12-7
VII.	Mullapode hill, -	139 29 7,8	-19	- (18b_)	1	189 29 07,0	No.
er-1	Coonoowaucum hill,	0 0 0				23 39 58.5	
		1	Datina	1,22		100 (III (II) (II)	
	Cocnoo	waucum hill from		rumbau ullapode			105534,
	Mullapode H	ill from Coono	owau	cum H	Till 47	088,5.	e distribution
	Bacyme N	0 1 1		30	1.		N. Contraction
	Mullapode hill, -	81 21 03,0	-,2			81 21 02,8	
VIII.	Coonoowaucum hill,	000	-,10			47 46 18,3	
TO STATE	Mancor Station, -	50 52 39,0			1 1	50 52 38,9	
STATE OF			12.34	TAN TO		180 00 00,0	
	Ma	neor station from	1	illapode noowau	E Steel	11,	44944.4

Mullapode Hill from Mungot Station 45109.5.

No.	Station.	10713	Observed Angles.	Diff.	Spher. Excess.	Error.	Angles for ealculation.	Diffance in feet.
100	42 52 123		0 /	61 0	1 24			977
	Mullapede hill,	-	81 10 56,8	175 2	0.00		81 10 57,4	5.65 J.3.57
IX.	Mungot station,	-	49 14 29,4	-,13	97		49 14 29,8	Sala
	riwinings; samerani	4,1 1	49 34 32,4	OF THE STREET	1001		49 34 32,8	
			179 59 58,6	-,48	,48	-2	180	10 10000
ON THE		2.00	Perumbank	(M	ullapode	hill,		44944
and and	AND WILL	Munn	for flation from	1M	fungot h	ill,		58633
3516	Charles and Asia	1	0 , ,				0 , ,	1 50000
	Mullapode hill,	2 5	28 17 36,7	4,04	BIK B	Nun	28 17 36,4	The Di
-	Mangot flation,		124 40 24,2				124 40 23,6	27
	Tandray flation,	100				2	27 02 00	A ID
27	7,70 00 081		180 . 0 01	-			allid sheets	117
	0.831.9a.es			-	-		il macacaga	
-	meda suit	Tand	ray flation from		ungot ft:			2 100
1	02/ 15	70.01	2014A-000-00-3	(m	ungor its	icion'		47105
CHARGO.	tar blest James	- land	Anna da F			Time.		
	Mullap	ode	Hill from M	unno	or Aati	on 44	944.3.	
-	l .		1. 1	١.	1		0-101-	
	Mullapode hill,		52 53 20	,2		13-6	52 53 21	7
XI.	Munneer Station,	111111	93 50 5,9				93 50 08	1
	Tandray station,	Man I	33 16 30,8		118	1	33 16 31	4
	4 00 00 00 00		179 59 56,7	1	,7	-4	180	STATE OF
	to the table		70 00 0 11	-	-	1	Core I com	A THE
	1 1/12 on oda	Tand	ray station from		lullapode lunnoor s			81732
	100000			M	unnoor 1	atton,	7	65325

Mungot flation from Munnoor flation 58633.7.

No.	Stations.	Observed Angles. Diff. Spher. Error. Angles for Diffance calculation. in feet.
	Mungot station, - Munnoor station, - Tandray station, -	75 25 54,8 —,3 44 15 34.9 —,2 60 18 30,7 —,2 75 25 54,5 44 15 35 60 18 30,7
	Tana	180 00 00,4 ,64 -,2 180

In the quadralateral formed by Mullapode hill, Mungot hill, Munnoor station, and Tandray station, the side Mullapode and Tandray is
common to the tenth and eleventh triangles, the first of which gives it
81731,9 feet, and the latter 81732,7 feet the mean of which is 81732,3 feet
which becomes the base for extending the triangles westerly. These results
appear to be sufficiently correct, since the bases on which the two triangles
have been formed were derived from the different sides of the triangle Perumbank hill, Mungot hill, and Mullapode hill, viz. one from the side
Mullapode hill and Mungot hill, the other from the side Mullapode hill
and Perumbank hill, on which was computed the side Mullapode hill and
Coonoowaucum hill, and from that again the side Mullapode hill and
moor station, which however come out the same as when obtained from the
distance Mullapode hill and Mungot hill.

It will also appear that in the triangle computed on the base Mungot hill and Munnoor station, that each of the sides, Munnoor station and Tandray station, and Mungot, and Tandray become common to the trian-

gles, Mullapode hill, Munnoon and Tandray and Mullapode hill, Mungot and Tandray, each to each, and that in the first case, there is a difference of and in the second of 60 of a foot. These circumstances will, I conceive, prove the operations to be sufficiently satisfactory.

Mullapode hill from Tandray Mation 81732,3.

No.	Stations.	Observed Angles. Diff. Spher. Error. Angles for ealculation.	Diftances in feet.
XIII.	Mullapede hill, - Tandray station, - Urrumbaucum, -	42 57 07.9 —,4 42 57 08.5 94 00 01.7 —,8 94 00 01.6 43 02 50 —,4 43 02 50.5 179 59 59.6 11,6 —,2 186	S C
	Tard period		81587,
			•
XIV.	Mullapode hill, - Tandray station, - Poonauk mullab, -	71 39 26,3 —1,1 80 48 45,7 —1,3 27 31 47,4 —0,8	4 4

Poonauk bill from Urrumbaucum hill 90339,4.

NV. Urrumbaneum;	0 0 0	-35	_	32 18	51	eres
	Alliceor hill from	(Poonauk h	ill _a	I,		58638,4 51436,9

Roonauk bill from Allicoor bill 58638,4.

Dittances in feet.		gles culati		Error	Spher. Excess	Diff.	ngles.	ed A	Obferve		Stations.	No.
R. P. II.	.	. 1	9		EVID I			7	0			
	57	52	23	-		-,09	57.5	52	23		Poomauk hill, -	
	13	22	91	1		-,2	13	22	-91	1	Allicoor hill, -	XVI.
	51	44	64	3		-,68	52,1	44	64		Paudree flation,	
	Marin .		180	+ 2,2	137		2,6		180	H	on that	
64815,	-		-	37.0	onauk h		from	tion	dree fta	Pain		giole
	-	4		37.0	onauk h licoor hil		from	tion	dree Na	Pan		

Mullapode bill from Urrumbaucum 119444,7.

TI	The same		- 9	,	100	.	WE WE		0	,		
M	ullapode hill,	- 1	28	42	12,6	-58		34	28	42	12,6	
1	rumbaucum,		111	52	33,6	- 159			111	52	32,8	
Pa	onauk hill,	-	39	25	15,6	-,8			.39	25	15,1	1035
1 1			180	11	1,8	0.5	2,4	-,9	180			
		Po	onauk 1	bill	from	{ Mu	llapode l rumbauc	hill, um hill	, .			90339,4

"Mullapode bill from Poonauk bill 174553.

2			Maumdoor from	T Mullapode	hill.		- 1	138685,5
E			180 00 3,6	1.4.9	-1,3	180		
1	Maumdoor,	-	72 38 40	-1,9		72	38 38,5	
XVIII	Poonauk hill, -	-	49 19 4,6	-1,5	N in	49	19 3,5	INT
	Mullapode hill,		58 02 19	-1,5		58	2 18	
NE ZE	District to		0 1 1	'		0	' '	

Maumdoor bill from Mullapode 138685.5.

No.	Stations,		Observed	Angles.	Diff.	Spher. Excefs.	Error.	Angles calcula		Diftances in feet.
	Maumdoor hill, Mullapede hill, Carrangeoly hill,	1 1 1	45	50 21,5 48 0,5 21 44,1 6,1	-1	3,4	+ 2,7	69 50 45 48 64 21	19,5	7
		Carr	angooly 1	hill from		aumdoor ullapode		-	-	110282,4

Carrangooly bill from Maumdoor bill 110282,4.

1	3 4 - 1	0 4 1 1	01	
	Carrangooly hill, -	80 37 28,3 -1,1	80 37 27	
	Maumdoor hill, -	44 46 21,6 - ,7	44 46 20,5	100
	Wooritty hill,	54 36 13,1 - ,7	54 36 12,5	2.31
1	The Assembly - I	180 00 03 2,5	+,5 180	157
W.F		Wooritty hill from { Carrangoo Maumdoon	r hill,	95282,8 133481,5

Wooritty bill from Carrangooly bill 95282,8.

	I Value Tale	15	0 7 11 1				1	,	
	Wooritty hill,		109 25 09,4 -1,1		-	109	25	07,7	
XXI.	Carrangooly hill,	-	28 33 28,6 -,22		-	28	33	27,8	LIVE!
	Permacoil hill,	-	42 01 25,1 -,13		-	42	01	24,5	
	100 miles		180 00 3,1	-1,4	+1,7	180			
(PAS)		Peri	manil bill from	poritly grango	hill,			-	68041,5 134236,4

Carrangooly bill from Permacoil bill 134236,4.

No.	Stations.		Observed Angles, Diff. Spher.	Error. Angles for calculation.	Diffances; in feet.
XXII.	Carrangeoly hill, Permacoil hill, Vellungcand,	-	36 40 28,2 -0,1 28 58 23,4 -0,1 114 21 15,4 -1,2 180 00 07,0 1,4	36 40 26 28 58 22 114 21 12 +5,6 180 00 00	
			T. H. war and Com	gooly hill,	71374,2 88004,7

Permacoil bill from Vellungcaud bill 88004,7.

	XXIII.	Permacoil hill, - Vellungcaud, New flation,	93 29 08,8 -,9	98 29 08 37 15 17 44 15 35	
	100		T. 1.	1,6 180 00 00	
1	of the state of	New statio	1 1 111 Com	rmacoil hill,	76334,1

Wooritty bill from Permacoil bill 68041,5.

XXIV.	Wooritty hill,	134	46	10,3 00,6 53,3 4,2	-,9 +,3	and the same of	+ 3.7	134	50	09 58,5 52,6	
a scell				ill fr		Woorit Perman	ty hill,	191	-		104887,5 45150,5

Permacoil bill from Coonum bill 45150.5.

No.	Stations.	Observed	Angles.	Diff.	Excefs.	Error.	Angles	for tion.	Diffances in feet,
XXV.	Permacoil hill, - Coonum hill,	87.5	3 11,8	-,2 ⁵		182	53 13 87 51 38 54	51,5	
1	The state of the s	11 18	1 = 6		,6	3	180 00	00	
	First Fla	g on red	hill fro	Sel	Permacoi Coonum 1	- 23			71825 575 ⁶ 7

Permacoil bill from Wooritty bill 68041,5.

Permacoil hill,		102	06	30,9	-,50				6 30,9	- 6
Wooritty hill, Mylum station,	-			Y.	-,13	-977	4		21 11,3	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
	Ā	Aylum 1	fati	on fro	100	Permace Wooritty		-		49184,8

Permacoil bill from Mylum flation 49184,8.

	Permacoil hill, Mylum station, Mooratan station,	72 26 53,3 73 09 50,7 0 0 0	1		72 26 53 73 09 50,4 -34 23 16	The Art To
15,02	Moo	ratan flation fr		rmacoil h	and the second	83351,9 83030,3

Coonum bill from first Flag. on red bill 57567,7-

Ne.	Stations.	Obferved Ang	gles. Diff.	Spher. Excefs.	Error.	Angles for ealculation.	Distances in feet.
The same of the same of	Coonum hill, 1st flag on red hill, Mooratan station,	THE RESERVE OF	3,1 -,1	o pol	e con a la l	21 45 27 76 26 03 81 48 30	k Russ
		,it		0,29	1	80 0 0	
	Mod	ratan station	from)	Coonum First flag	MARKET SHALL		56538,5

Permacoil Hill from the new station on red hill 76334.1.

 Permacoil hill - New flation, Mooratan flation,	15 57 39,8 99 25 04,4 64 37 21,4 180 00 5,6	-,28 -,04	1	15 57 38. 99 25 2,4 64 37 19,6	
Med	ratās flation fro	m	nacoil hill,		83348,4

Permacoil bill from Mooratan flation 83350,19.

XXX.	Permacoil hill, - Mooratan station, Chengcaud station,	42 57 14,4 -,4 85 13 36 -,6 51 49 04,4 -,4 179 59 54,8	111	42 57 16,2 85 13 37,6 51 49 06,2	ide alle
Transition in	Cheng	educa Gratian Fram		oil hill,	72254,7

Coonum bill from Mooratan flation 56538,5.

No.	Stations.	Observe	d An	gles	Diff.	Spher. Excels.	Error.	Angles for calculation.	Diffances in feet.
	Coonum hill,	0	0	0	6 0	0	1111	76 02 09,5	Lines
XXXI.	Mooratan station, Chengeaud station,		33 ¹	- 7	-,2 -,2	18.	uil)	.54 33 15 49 24 35,5	
		U.A.	I.			0,8		180 00 00;0	
	Chen	geaud ft	atio	n fro		Coonum Moorata		on,	60654 72252

Mooratan Station from Chengcaud Station 72253,8.

	36 000	64 42 38,5 -,5	64 42 35	
	Mooratan Station, Chengcaud Station,	66 8 35,2 -,5	66 8 32	
	Trivandepoorum,	49 8 53,9 -,4	49 8 53	
14 1 2	The second second	180 00 7,6	+6,4 180 00 00	
	1 5 5 304		n station,	87360,
e rolf fire	Ti	ivandepoorum from { Chengean	ud flation,	86367

THE angles have been taken with much care, and I believe with as much accuracy as the nature of such a process admits of, difficulty however very frequently arose from the haziness of the weather, which rendered the objects at the very distant points extremely dull, and occasioned some irregularity in the angles. Whenever that happened, the observations were often repeated, and in case any one in particular was different from the other so much as ten seconds, it was rejected till the three angles of the triangle had been observed. If the sum of these angles was near what it

ought to be, no further notice was taken of it, but should the sum of the three angles be nearer the truth by taking it into the account, and that there appeared an irregularity in the other two observed angles, I have made it a rule to take each observed angle as a correct one, and divide the excess or defect between the other two, and then compute from the given side the other two sides, and after doing the same thing with each of the angles successively, a mean of the sides thus brought out was taken, which to certain limits will always be near the truth. I then varied the selection of the observed angles, rejecting such as I had reason to doubt, and by correcting them, and computing the two required sides of the triangle those which gave the sides nearest to what had been brought out by the other method, were adopted, let the error be what it would. This however has rarely happened, and when it did great precaution was used; and no angle was rejected without some reason appeared to render it doubtful.

In correcting the observed angles to obtain those made by the chords, I have used the formula given by the Astronomer Royal, in his demonstration of M. DE LAMBRE's problem, which appears in the Philosophical Transactions for 1797. The spherical excess is of course had from the well known method of dividing the area of the triangle in square seconds, by the number of seconds in the arc equal to radius, where the number of seet in a second may be had by using the degree as has been commonly applied to the mean sphere, or the mean between the degree on the meridian and its perpendicular. This being of no surther use than to check any error that might happen in computing the corrections for the angles.

mention to reference to any hypothesis of the earth's figure for position the

In converting the fides of the triangles into arcs, the length of a degree has been computed for every ten degrees from the meridian to its perpendicular on an Ellipsoid, whose diameters were in the ratio of one to

1,0067, which is derived from taking the degree on the meridian in latitude 50° 41' to be 60851, and the degree perpendicular thereto 61182, in the fame latitude. These data would give the meridional degree in latitude 13° to be 60191, and the degree perpendicular equal 60957, which however is not the case: but no sensible error will arrive in making those corrections from taking the arcs a sew seconds more or less than the truth.

SECTION VI.

Reduction of the distances to the meridian of Trivandeporum, for determining the length of the terrestrial arc.

The fides of the great triangles, from which the arc is derived, falling very nearly in the same meridian, and not more than 16363,3 feet west from the meridian of Trivandeporum, the south extremity of the arc, there required no reference to any hypothesis of the earth's figure for getting the exact distance between the parallels, so that the latitude of a point where a great circle falling from the station of observation near Paudree, will cut the meridian of Trivandeporum at right angles, may be determined with sufficient accuracy by computing spherically, and the distances when reduced to the meridian, (the distance from Trivandeporum to Coonum hill excepted), may be considered as the chords of arcs on the meridian, and therefore the arcs themselves may be had, by alsowing 60494 fathoms to the degree, as had been obtained from the sum of those reduced distances, the sum therefore of all these arcs will make the whole meridional arc, which is a nearer approximation to the truth.

Seeing that a line drawn from the station of observation at Paudree, to the station at Maumdoor hill, would fall nearly in the direction of the meridian, that distance has been computed by taking the sides Poonauk hill to Maumdoor hill, and Poonauk hill to Padree, and using the internal angle at Poonauk hill, corrected for the chords. This however was scarcely necessary, except for shewing the arrangement of the points.

THE following table will shew the arrangement of the sides and their reduction to the meridian of Trivandeporum.

Stations at	Stations	Bearings referred to the meridian of Tri-	Distances.	Diftances parallels	
Otaciona an	referred to.	vandeporum.	in the same of the		Perpendicular.
Trivandeporum,	Coonum hill,	5 31 50,3 N.W.	125129,1	12059,8 W.	124547,5 N.
Coonum hill, -	Wooritty hill,	o og 18,4 N.W.	104887,5	108,3 W.	104887,4 N.
The second secon	Carrangooly,	52 45 21,9	95282,8	75851,4 E.	57666,0 N.
manual published	Maumdoor,	1 50 51,2 N.W.	133481,5	4303,5 W.	133412,5 N
Maumdoor,	Paudree Station,	1 02 09,7 N. E.		The second secon	and the second second

THE NORTHINGS REDUCED TO ARCS.

Trivandeporum	to	Coonum hill,		-	124548,77
Coonum hill	to	Waoritty hill,	The sale	Date of	104887,47
Wooritty hill	to	Maumdoor hill,	Diam'r.	Walter Committee	133413,15
Maumdoor hill	to	Paudree station,	is Tol		211478,57
Length of the	terr	restrial arc,	D-pliffer	imig dis	574327,96
Or fathoms,			gelisit	into- ins	95721,3266

How

SECTION VII.

Observations by the Zenith Sector for the latitude of Paudree station, and the station near Trivandeporum; and the length of the celestial arc.

THE zenith sector, with which these observations have been taken, was made by Mr. RAMSDEN, and is the one alluded to by General Roy,

in the Philosophical Transactions for 1790, being then unfinished. The radius of the arc is five feet, and the arc itself is of that extent to take in nine degrees on each fide of the zenith. It is divided into degrees, and smaller divisions of 20 each, which are numbered. Each of these last is again subdivided into four, of 5 each. The micrometer which moves the telescope and arc, is graduated to seconds, and one revolution moves the arc over 1 10 08", but the scale being large, a small fraction of a second can be easily defined. The construction and improvements to the zenith sector, are so well known, that a minute description of it here would be unnecessary. It will therefore suffice to say, that as far as so delicate an instrument can be managed in a portable observatory or travelling tent, which never can offer the advantages of a fixed, well contrived building, I have every reason to be satisfied with it.

The time I commenced observing at Paudree station was during the heavy part of the monsoon, which occasioned frequent interruptions; And although I had intended observing by at least three fixed stars, I only succeeded to my satisfaction in one, which was Aldebaran. With that stars I had a fortunute succession for about sixteen nights; some sew of those observations being less savorable than the others were rejected, and the rest, from which the latitude was determined, appear in the following table aranged in the order in which they were taken.

some or disputate continuent and

During the time I was at Trivandeporum near Cuddalore, the weather was fettled and serene, and the nights perfectly clear, so that I had an unlimited choice of stars, but having been successful with Aldebaran, I chose that that far for determining the length of the arc.

The north force, with which theld observations have been taken.

As I consider the celestial are more likely to be erroneous than any

terrestrial measurement; I have thought it necessary to give some account of the manner of observing and of adjusting the instrument, for after two years experience, I have found, that not withflanding the great powers of the zenith fector, extreme delicacy and attention are requilite to render the observations satisfactory. The following method of adjustment I have always practioned. After having brought the vertical axis nearly to its true position by the adjusting screw at the bottom, or so that the wire of the plummet would bifect the same dot when the telescope was moved to the opposite side, or half round on the axis, I then examined whether the dot at the center of the horizontal axis was bifected, and whether the wire moved in the vertical plane clear of the axis, for unless it be perfectly free, all the observations will be false. When I had bisected the dot, I either took out the microscope and looked obliquely; or did the same by a magnifying glass, and by that means I could discover the smallest parallax. If it admitted being brought nearer to the axis, it was done, but I found from experience, that it was more eligible to leave the wire at a fensible distance than to bring it very near Having satisfied myself in this particular, I examined with the microscope again in front; moved the wire freely in the vertical plane; and then bifected the dot. The telescope was then moved, so that the wire was brought over the dot zero on the arc and the same precaution used with respect to the wire moving free of the are; and here as well as above; I found it best to allow a fensible distance

there be estably, the tribed diago every thing remained to within liftern or

THE microscope by which the upper dot in the horizontal axis is examined, being fixed by the maker, the axis of vision is of course at right angles to the vertical plane, and will meet that plane in the center of the axis, but the lower microscope is moveable, and requires care to fix it so

as to have the wire in the axis of vision, and be free from the effects of parallax, this I have done by moving it along the brass plate in front of the arc, till the wire appeared free from curvature, and then adjusted the dot. In these late observations, I have generally made the final adjustment by the light of a wax taper, for the wind being sometimes high and troublesome, I found there was much irregularity in the observations, until I adopted that method. I therefore closed the doors and windows of the observatory tent, so as to have a perfect stillness within. The distance of the wire from the axis and the arc is likewise better defined by a taper by noticing the shadow in moving the light to the right and left.

In fixing the instrument for the star, great care was taken to have it placed in the meridian, which was done by a mark at near the distance of a mile, (generally one of my small flags), the poplar flar, having been previously observed by the large theodelite for that purpose. The telescope was then moved in the vertical till the wire of the plummet was at the nearest division on either limb to the zenith distance of the star, which could always be nearly known. The micrometer, having been put to zero, was firmly fcrewed, and the dot on the limb carefully bisected, the instrument was turned half round; the adjustment examined and corrected if necessary. That being done, the degrees and minutes &c. on the arc were noted down as was also the particular division on the micrometer scale, at which the index stood, and the fractional part of a division in case there were any. In this state every thing remained to within fifteen or twenty minutes of the time the star was to pass, when I repaired to the tent, and again examined whether the wire bisected the dot; if it did not, the instrument was again adjusted to the same dot, and the horizontal axis also examined by the upper microscope, all this being done, the sector was placed in the meridian.

When the star entered the sield of view, the micrometer was moved gently till the star was near the horizontal wire, but not bisected till it came near the vertical, that the micrometer might not he turned back, but continue moving in the same direction. This I did to avoid any false motion in the micrometer screw, and I was led to this precaution by the repeated experiments I had made in examining the divisions on the arc, for it sometimes happened after moving the arc over one of the divisions till the wire bisected the next dot; and then turning it back again, that the index of the micrometer was not at the same second, but had passed over it perhaps one, and sometimes two seconds; but by moving over the next five minutes in the same direction, the number of revolutions and seconds were always what they ought to be, to some very small fraction. This anomally however only happened in some situations of the screw, and to avoid any errors arising therefrom, I adopted the above method.

THE zenith distance of the star being now had, on one part of the are or limb, after the same process had been gone through the next night, with regard to the adjustment, the zenith distance was taken on the other part of the arc, by turning the instrument half round on its vertical axis. The mean of these two was therefore the true observed zenith distance, and half the difference was the error of collimation. For applying these to the purpose in question, the mean of these zenith distances being corrected for refraction, the declination of the star for each of these nights, was corrected for nutation, aberration, &c. to the time of observation, and the mean of the two taken for determining the latitude.

In this manner has the whole feries of observations been continued, by turning the sector half round every night, for the purpose of observing on opposite parts of the arc, and each compared with its preceding and sucereding one. In pursuing this method, it was unnecessary to notice the error of collimation for any other purpose than as a test to the regularity of the observations; for until they became uniform, no notice was taken of the zenith distances, concluding that there had been some mismanagement, or some desect in the adjustment.

THE following tables contain the observations by the star Aldebanan, for determining the length of the arc.

repeated experiments I had made in examining the livingue on the arraits

Observations at the Station near Paudree.

a controlling had titll the coll total add to our new thomsender out to gate

	fean of the zenith	Mean of the correct-	Latitude.
two words the ferow, and	and that at	on our interest	0 ' '
Nov. 23d & 24th,	2 46 32, 5	16 06 20,70	13 19 48,20
24th & 25th,	2 46 32,46	16 06 20,69	13 19 48,23
25th & 26th,	2 46 31,78	16 06 20,68	13 19 48,90
30th & 1ft Dec.	2 46 31,50	16 06 20,61	13 19 49,01
Dec. 1ft & 2d,	2 46 32,60	16 06 20,60	13 19 48,0
2d & 3d,	2 46 32,90	16 06 20,58	13 19 47,68
12th & 13th,	2 46 30,96	16 06 20,39	13 19 49,43
13th & 14th,	2 46 28,57	16 06 20,36	13 19 51,79
Error of col- 327th,	2 46 29,71	16 06 19,64	13 19 49,93
and a shall	to be smile	Mean	13 19 49,018

In this manner has the whole order of chievedees hero constantly by the thingshe fellow half round every night, for the purpose of the are, and each compend with its preceding and the

Observations at the flation near Trivandeporum.

Day of the month.	Mean of the zenith		Latitude.	
	1011			
February 10th & 11th,	4 21 27,14	16 06 18,00	11 44 50,86	
11th & 13th,	4 21 24,04	16 06 17,93	11 44 53,89	
13th & 14th,	4 21 23,04	16 06 17,87	11 44 54,83	
14th & 15th,	4 21 25,10	16 06 17,83	11 44 52,73	
15th & 16th,	4 21 26,73	16 06 17,79	11 44 51,06	
16th & 17th,	4 21 25,60	16 06 17,75	11 44 52,15	
24th & 25th,	4 21 24,17	16 06 17,44	11 44 53,27	
25th & 26th,	4 21 25,17	16 06 17,40	11 44 52,23	
26th & 27th,	4 21 25,04	16 06 17,37	11 44 52,33	
ALTON DESIGNATION	O. Chau Tonia	Mean	11 44 52,59	

Latitude of the station near Paudree, - 13 19 49,02
Latitude of the station near Trivandeporum, 11 44 52,59

Difference of latitude, nearly. 1 34 56,43

The latitude of a point where a great circle passing through Paudree station, and cutting the meridian of Trivandeporum at right angles, will be 13° 19' 49',02-, from which deduct the latitude of the station at Trivandeporum equal 11° 49' 52',59, will leave 1° 34' 56',43, or 1°,58233 nearly; by which divide the number of sathoms in the terrestrial are =95721,3266, &c. we shall have 1° = 60494 sathoms, nearly, for the degree in the middle of the arc, or latitude 12° 32' nearly.

APPENDIX.

Since the account of the meridional arc was made out, I have completed the measurement of a degree perpendicular to the meridian in latitude 12° 32 nearly, which is derived from a distance of fifty-five miles and and west from each other; and the following triangles have been made use of to obtain that distance.

Distance, Carangooly from Permacoil 134236,4.

No.	Stations.	Observed Angles.	Diff.	Spher. Excefs.	Error.	Angles for computation.	Distances in feet.
1757 9115	Carangeoly, -	38 00 53,47 103 08 30,05				38 00 53 103 08 27,5	
23.3	Maillacherry) Droog,	38 50 42,44	-1,71	124	10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 1	38 50 39,5	
	THE REAL PROPERTY.	180 00 05,96	1015	4,08	+1,88	180 00 00,0	Walter St.

Carangooly from Maillacherry Droog 208418,2.

- Charles District	6 / /	TO THE WOODS IN THE PARTY OF	
Carangooby, -	30 44 38,7	in-193	30 44 37,0 291189,3
XXXIV. Maillacherry	105 42 14,3	-5,1	105 42 09,0 154625,8
Droog,	43 33 15,1	Superity of Supering	43 33 14,0
	180 00 08,1	1. fall . 7.4 +0.7	180 00 00,0

THE distance from Curnatighur to Maillacherry has also been brought out from a northern series of triangles derived from the side of Poonauk hill and Maumdoor hill, of the great triangle Maumdoor, Poonauk, and Mullapode hill; the triangles are Poonauk, Maumdoor and Hanandamulla; Hanandamulla, Maumdoor, and Telloor; Telloor, Hanandamulla, and Curnatighur; Curnatighur, Telloor, and Maillacherry Droog. Upon the distance from Curnatighur to Maillacherry as a base, the distance from Curnatighur to

Carangooly has been computed, and differs only two feet from that derived from the fide Carangooly and Maillacherry Droog: but there was some variation in the angles taken at Poonauk hill, which renders it doubtful, for the present, which to select; I have therefore relied on the single distance given in the thirty-fourth triangle.

Of the polar star-observations at Carangooly and Curnatighur, and the length of a degree, perpendicular to the meridian, deduced therefrom, for the latitude of 12° 32' nearly.

As the method of determining the difference of longitude of two places, by taking the angle with the meridian and each station reciprocally, requires very great accuracy, I have thought it necessary to give an account of the observations for that purpose, and to state at the same time, the difficulty of taking them, particularly at Curnatighur, whole great height subjected it to a constant haziness, whereby the blue-lights at Carangooly were repeatedly fired without effect, appearing too faint to be feen when the wires of the telescope were illuminated; some nights however were favorable, when the whole of the lights were distinctly seen ; but the anxiety, . which occurs on fuch occasions, will sometimes cause irregularities in the angles; a few on that account, when the lights expired before the observations were thought fufficiently satisfactory, have been rejected. Those which appear in the following account, are fuch as I have deemed good, though there is a greater difference among them than I could have wished. But as I had no positive reason for setting them aside, I have accordingly used them; and have endeavored to lessen the error, by increasing the number of observations, at Carangooly, between the polar star, at its greatest western elongation, and the referring lamp at Sallawauk.

March 20, in	the eve	ening,	arin.	H Jan	- Host	THE PARTY	34	48,4
21,	nda Pas	etti.	and a	A Unite	L	150		52,9
22,	ubm sz e	01/4/		-Luin	-	20 -0		52,8
23,	not had	En 2 18	1-1-1	- 348	-	10.3		48,8
25,	-	-		-				50,2
26,	-	-		-	-			48,0
27,	-	-			-			46,9
29,	religible to	ma la		nom	150	phin		45.4
Between the	lamp a	t Sall	awaul	and		light at	Curna	righur.
March 30,	-	-	-	84°	38'	24,0		
	-	-	-	-		23.55		
April 41	*		-			19,2		HOW MAN
THE STATE OF STREET	-	-	-			20,0		
tanount transfit	-	-	-	-		22,62		
to into the diff.				Mean		- 8	å 38	21",87

TABLE. Containing the apparent polar distances of the star, and the apparent azimuths for the nights of observation; and also the angles between the referring lamp and the meridian of Carangooly.

March 1803.	Apparent Polar diftance.	Latitude.	Apparent Star and Lamp. Lamp.	
20	1 44 22,32	1	1 46 55,32 0 34 48,4 2 21	43,72
21	1 44 22,62	and make	1 46 55,63 0 34 52,9 2 21	48,53
22	1 44 22,88		1 46 55,90 0 34 52,8 2 21	48,70
23	1 44 23,16	120 32' 12,27	1 46 56,18 0 34 48,8 2 21	44,98
25	1 44 23,71		1 46 56,72 0 34 50,2 2 21	46,9
26	1 44 24,01	and make Sures	1 46 57,05 0 34 48,0 2 21	4-16-24
27	1 44 24,28	distance ordered	1 46 57,33 0 34 46,9 2 21	
20	1 44 24,82	La La de la J	1 46 57,89 0 34 45,4 2 21	THE RESERVE AND ADDRESS OF THE PARTY OF THE
	16	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	Mean - 2 21	45,6
(blerved angle	between the lam	and Curnatighur, 84 38	2.1,8
(bletved angle	meridian of Cara	ngooly and ditto, 87 00	07,5

Observations at Curnatighur,	between 1	the polar flar,	at its greatest eastern
elongation, and the referring	lamp at 1	Maudimungalus	n.

May 14,	in the	morni	ng.	HILL HA	myr god	111319	MUN	82 26	25,6	
15,		05.01	related)	Diam.	10-1	014	il-85	ennd ius	25,2	
16,		minate	needing.	200	10-11m	-	IN THE	emios in	25.6	
20,	- 10 -	0.7	administration.	of the		-	To ale	Haran v	28,29	-
21,		-	-	-		-	-		26,1	

Petween the referring hight and the blue lights at Carangooly.

May 18,		8 35	34,50	
and for the state of the		Televis	36,30	
the first with the state of the			40,10	
			42,0	
			38,20	
He had the wind on the said		to No	35.57	
tend or plant one and a legal			38,40	
THE PERSON NAMED IN	Mean	100	Total Dis	8 35 38.26

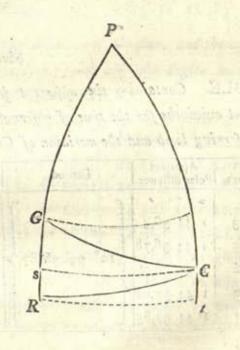
TABLE. Containing the apparent polar distances of the star, the apparent azimuths for the time of observation, and also the angles between the referring lamp and the meridian of Curnatighur.

	101115	Azimuth.	and Lamp.	and Lampi
13	1 44 36,4	1 47 10.76	82 26 25,6	84 10 06 0
15	1 44 96 28	1 47 11,15	82 26 25,2	84 13 26.2
16	1 44 36,96 12° 34′ 38′,87	1 47 11,34	82 26 25,6	84 13 36,0
20-	1 44 37,68	1 47 12,08	82 26 28,29	84 13 40,3
21	1° 44 37,85 L	1 47 12,25	82 26 26,1	84 13 38,3
0		1	Mean	84 13 37,6
0	bserved angle between the lamp ar	d Carangooly,	- +	8 35 38,2

Is the mean of all the angles be taken, the observed angle at Carangooly, between the meridian and Curnatighur, will be 87° 00' 07',54; and the observed angle at Curnatighur, between that meridian and the station at Carangooly will be 92° 49' 15',93. In order therefore to correct these angles for spherical computation, it will first be necessary to ascertain the distance between the parallels of Carangooly and Curnatighur, so that the one being known, the other may be obtained.

LET PC and PG be two meridians, and let C and G be the stations at Carangooly and Curnatighur. Let Cs be a parallel of latitude at C, meeting the meridian of Curnatighur produced, and let CR be a great circle perpendicular to the meridian of Carangooly falling from that place, till it meet PG produced in R.

Now GCR is a spheroidical triangle, and the chord of the arc GC is given from the thirty-fourth triangle: and fince the angle PGC is known, the angle CGR is known, being equal 180° minus the observed angle at Curanatighur, or 87° 10′ 44′,07.— And by the same reasoning the angle GCR will be given, being equal the angle PCR (90°) minus the observed angle at Caranagooly, that is 2° 59′ 52′,46.— Hence, by first considering this as a plane triangle, and taking the



angle at R, the supplement to the other two, the sides CR and GR may

be obtained, and used as arcs for correcting the angles at C and G, which will then be 2° 59' 52', and 87° 10' 43', 79 respectively, which are the angles made by the chords of the arcs CG and RG at C and G. Hence the supplement to these $(89^{\circ}$ 49' 24', (01) will be the angle at R made by the chords of the arcs RG and RG. From these data will be had RC=290837, 8, and RG=15228, 74 seet.

Bur to find the small space Rs on the meridian of Curnatighur, between the perpendicular are and parallel from Carangooly, let the triangle CRs be taken as a plane one. Then if to the corrected angle CRs (89° 49 24,01) be added the supplement to the spherical excess in the triangle RCG (0,5) we shall have 89° 49' 24',51 for the angle SRC. Draw Rt parallel to sC meeting the meridian of Carangooly, produced in t. Then fince the angles PtR and PsC are equal by construction; and the triangles sCR, CRt confidered as plane ones, the angle CRt is equal half the difference of the angles PCR and PRC, that is = $90^{\circ} - (89^{\circ} + 9)^{\circ} + (89^{\circ} + 9)^{\circ} = 0^{\circ}$ 5 17,74. Hence is given the two angles CRs, sCR, and the fide CR, by which the fmall fide Rs is had, equal to 448,02 feet, which deducted from GR, gives Gs =14780,72 feet, equal to an arc of 2' 26',58 on the meridian, and this is the difference of the latitudes of Carangooly and Curnatighur. Hence if the latitude of *Carangosly be 120 32 12,27, that of Curnatighur will be 12° 34' 38,85, and their respective complements will be 77° 27' 47',73 and 77° 25' 21',15. Hence in the triangle PCG, on the spheroid, is given the two fides PG and PC, the co-latitudes of G and C, and the two observed angles PCG and PGC.

^{*} When the polar star observations were made at Carangeoly, no double azimuths could be taken, and therefore the latitude of the place was necessary to compute the azimuths, in order to get the direction of the meridian. As I wished to deduce the latitude of Carangeoly from that of the observatory at Madeas, the following method was used to ob ain it.

Law P be the pole, PI the meridian of Trivandeporum, O the observatory at Madras; and let C be the

Then as the tan. 77° 26′ 34′44 (half the sum of the sides PG and PC) to tan. 0° 1′ 13,′29 (half their difference) so is tan. 89° 54′ 41,′73 (half the sum of the angles), to tan. 2° 56′ 10′,23 (the half difference of the angles). Therefore 92° 50′ 51′,96 and 86° 58′ 31′,5, will be the angles at Carnatighur and Carangooly, such as would have been observed on a sphere, the latitudes and longitudes being the same. Then by using these angles, with the sides PC and PG, and computing spherically, the angle CPG, or difference of longitude, will be 48′ 47′,75 with which and the side PC, or co-latitude of Carangooly, in the triangle PCR, right angled at G, the side CR will be had equal 0° 47′ 37′,45°.

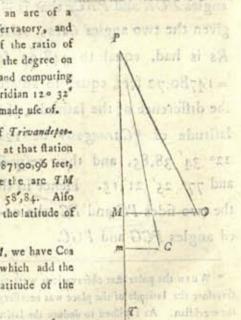
Now the chord of this arc is the distance CR, equal 290837.8 feet, and cherefore the arc inself is 290841 feet nearly. Hence 47' 37',45: 290841:: 60': 366355.08 feet, or 61059,2 fathoms nearly, which is the length of the degree perpendicular to the meridian at Carangooly.

flation at Carangeoly, I that at Trivandeporum, OM an arc of a great circle, perpendicular to PT, falling from the observatory, and Cm another perpendicular arc, from Carangeoly. Then if the ratio of the earth's diameters be taken as 1 to 1,003567, and the degree on the meridian be 60494 fathoms; by using these data, and computing on the elliptic hypothesis, the degree perpendicular to the meridian 120 32 would be 60906 fathoms, which for the present purpose is made use of.

By the triangles, the point O is east from the meridian of Trivandeposrum 190561,12 feet, and north from the perpendicular at that station 480563.62 feet. Also C is east 63690,8 feet, and north 287100,96 feet, from which and applying the above degrees, we shall have the arc TM 1° 19' 26'4; Tm=47' 27' 56; and therefore=Mm 31' 58',84. Also OM 31' 17',13 Gm=10' 27',42, and IO 76° 55' 50',7 the latitude of the observatory being 13° 04' 09',3.

Then in the spherical triangle POM, right angled at M, we have Cos OM: Rad:: Cos. PO: $Cos. PM=76^{\circ}$ 55' 48',72, to which add the arc Mm, there will be had $Pm=77^{\circ}$ 27' 47',56, the co-latitude of the point m.

THEN again as rad.: Cos Cm:: Cos mP: Cos PC=77° 27' 47,77;
sherefore the latitude of Carangooly will be 12° 32' 12,23.



POSTSCRIPT.

Since the above has been written, the triangles derived from the fide Maumdoor and Poonauk, and brought down westerly as far as Woritty, have been computed, and it appears that the distance between Maumdoor and Woritty, which is common to both serieses, exceeds the former by 6.9 feet; so that the mean of the two, equal 133485,0 feet, has been taken for obtaining anew both the meridional and perpendicular arcs. The former of which is 574337,04 feet, and the latter 290848,5 feet, whence the degree on the meridian will be had 60495 fathoms nearly, and the degree perpendicular to the meridian at Carangooly 61061 fathoms nearly.

The difference of 6,9 feet is more than what I expected, but it has been occasioned by the great difficulty in getting the angles in the great triangle, Maumdoor, Mullapode, and Poonauk. But as it appears that the fide Mullapode and Maumdoor has been in excess, and the fide Poonauk and Maumdoor in defect, it must follow that the mean distance of Maumdoor and Woritty, brought out by triangles derived from these two fides, must be very near the truth.

Now this latitude has been made use of to find the latitude of Curnatighur, and the same process has been followed for finding the length of a degree on the perpendicular in the latitude of Carangooly as is here given; and that degree taken, with the easting of the observatory from the meridian of Carangooly to compute the latitude a second time, which came out 12° 32′ 12, 27, and is here applied for recomputing the perpendicular degree: but the difference is too trifling to affect the difference of longitude, and therefore the degree comes out the same.

It is fearcely necessary to notice, that the distance of the observatory from the meridian of Trivandepostum being so trifling, no spheroidal correction has been thought requisite for obtaining the latitude of
the point M, and much less for that of C.

Nagg	Lat of Pandree Station by Aldebaran is ig .g.
	Mrrumbaucum hill
Shotaregur Chillis Sa	FORT ST GEORGE. Observatory C Mongot St. Thomas Mount
VELLORE (* Dhgoa	Conocwaucum hill
	Maumicer hill Agordone A
Curnatiphur	Carangooly hill SADRAS
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Trinomally	Mylum A Station Coonam hill
dian	of the Triangles from which the Ingrand Perpendicular. And have been derived
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the solution relative to the up Vov. of the Sere Seld farm involves to points, of the usuality in the seld in the second in the second seld in the

OF THE HINDS STREET, OF AST PORCHE

On the Hindu Systems of ASTRONOMY, and their connection with History in ancient and modern times.

BY J. BENTLEY, Esq.

affingoi ?

N my last paper on the antiquity of the Surya Siddhanta, published in the sixth volume of the Asiatick Researches, I endeavoured to explain, in as simple a manner as possible, the principles on which the Hindu artisticial systems of astronomy are founded. It was my intention to have possible poned the present paper until I should procure several valuable works, which, through the assistance of my friends, I am endeavouring to collect from different parts, which would enable me to give a more persect and satisfactory account of the ancient astronomy and history of India, than I can at present; but having lately by chance, seen the first number of the Edinburgh Review, wherein the writer has thought proper to attack my last paper, I feel it incumbent on me to come forward as early as possible, to repel his observations, and to show how little he is acquainted with the matters he pretends to review.

THE Reviewer fays and respected with the residence of the

" actual position of the heavenly bodies.

MR. BENTLEY appears to be a mathematician of confiderable induftry and merit. In this disquisition he has supplied some instructive observations on the principles of the *Hindu* astronomy, and on the manner in which their cycles were or might have been formed; he has also exhibited useful formulæ, shewing their application in discovering the

"His discussion relative to the antiquity of the Surya Siddbanta, involves points of the utmost importance; no less indeed than whether the whole of the Sanscrit literature shall be considered as the spurious production of a recent age, or genuine monuments of primeval times. We shall endeavour to do justice to his formidable attack on the Indian gymnofophists.

THE Surya Siddhanta is generally believed to be the most ancient " astronomical treaties the Hindus have; and according to their notions, was received by divine revelation 2,164,899 years ago. But the mean refult of calculations from ten different data afforded by that work and on its own principles of affuming the position of the heavenly bodies to " have been accurately observed at the time it was written, gives only 16 731 for the date of its composition, or the year of our Lord 1068. But independent of all calculations, an astronomical work, entitled the Bhaf-" wotee, was composed 700 years ago by Sotonund, who, according to " Hindu accounts, was a pupil of VARA'HA MIHIRA. The commentary on " this treatife declares, that VARAHA was the author of the Surya Sid-" dbanta. Therefore any Hindu work, in which the name of VARAHA " or his fystem is mentioned, must evidently be modern, and this circum-" stance alone totally destroys the pretended antiquity of many of the " Purans and other books, which, through the artifices of the Brabmi-" nical tribe, have been hitherto deemed the most ancient in existence. " Now all the other aftronomical works Mr. BENLLEY has feen, adopt * the fystem in the Súrya Siddhanta by WARA'HA*.

" A work ascribed to PARASARA, a philosopher, who is supposed to

^{*} This must be a misrepresentation of the Reviewer, see page \$46, \$47, of Vol. VI, where I have mentioned and described other systems.

J. B.

44 have lived before the Vedás were arranged in their present form, exhibits

" a still more manifest proof of forgery, fince one of the formulæ it exhi-

" bits, mentions the æra of SACA, which began Anno Domini 78."

AFTER giving this outline, which is very defective in many respects, the Reviewer commences his attack as follows:

" IT would be easy to shew, that the circumstances so forcibly " flated, by no means justify the fweeping inference deduced by our author. VARAHA MIHIRA was never confidered as an ancient writer, and " is supposed by Sir WILLIAM Jones to have flourished A. D. 499. "That he was the author of the Surya Siddbanta, rests on the single autho-" rity of the commentator of the Bhafwotee, a work which feems to have been composed in Siam; though we greatly wish Mr. BENTLEY had imitated Sir WILLIAM JONES on fuch occasions by inferting the origi-" nal paffage. But on what authority does our author assume, that the " Calpa or cycle of VARA'HA, is that of VARA'HA MIHIRA, the modern " astronomer? We find the Hindu cycles always distinguished by the names of different Deities. There is the DEVI Calpa, the Su'RYA Cal-" pa; the present is the VISHNU Calpa, and we entertain no doubt that the VARA'HA Calpa derived that defignation from the VARA'HA Ava-" tar, or incarnation of VISHNU in the form of a Boar, as is the univer-44 fal opinion of the natives. Now the name of VARAHA MIHIRA un-" questionably does not occur in the Purans, or in any work pretending " to antiquity; and we have feen in what light we are to confider the ". VARAHA Calpa."

THAT VARAHA MIHIRA was the author of the Surya Siddhanta, does not rest upon the single authority of the commentator on the Bhaswatai, but

on several undeniable facts, mit is clearly shewn by the other works of VAL. RAHA, which bear his name, one of which the Jatacarnava, (JATOKA-ARNOVO) is compared with the Súrya Siddhania at page 573, §. 72. Nays the very circumflance to which the Reviewer himself alludes above, of VA-RA'HA being supposed to have flourished A. D. 499, ought to have led him to the same conclusion. Fer, why is VARAHA supposed to have flourished in A. D. 499? Because he had fixed the vernal equinox to the beginning of Aswini in that year, and settled the rate of precession to be from thence computed at 54' annually: Now, this is absolutely the case in the Surya Siddbanta, as well as in all the other works of VARA'HA; and the fame fyftem, motions, and politions of the planets, given by that astronomer in those works which bear his name, are likewise the same in the Surya Siddhanta. But independent of all these undeniable facts, there is not a Hindu astronomer, who has the smallest pretension to the knowledge of the history of astronomy in India, that does not know that VARA'HA was the real author of the Surya Siddhanta, and not only of that work, but also of the Brabma Siddbánta, the Sóma Siddbánta, the Vafishta Siddbánta, and the Paulaflya Siddhanta, which are called the five Siddhantas of VARAHA MI-HIRA; and in allusion to which, one or more fingle works have been written under the title of " Pancha Siddhanta," as supposed to contain the effential parts of the five Siddbantas of VARAHA.

THE Hindus, in general, know very little about the time in which VA-RA'HA flourished. Some refer him to the zera of VICRAMADITYA, or fifty-six years before Christ, while others, from the circumstances above mentioned, refer him to A. D. 499, which shew how little they know of the real time he lived in, which was between seven and eight hundred years ago.

WITH respect to the different systems of astronomy which have been

framed from time to time, there are but three now generally known, all of them modern. The first, is the BRAHMA Calpa, invented by BRAHMA. GUPTA, near 1300 years ago; the second, the PADMA Calpa, said to have been invented by a person of the name of SRI DHARA PADMA, or . SRI' DHARA PADMA NA'BHA, between eight and nine hundred years ago; and the third and last, the VARA'HA Calpa, invented by VARA'HA MIHI-RA, between seven and eight hundred years ago. Hence it may be feen that the different systems bear the names of their inventors and not of the Deities; for there is no fuch Deity as PADMA, though there is a fystem of that name, therefore, it must be sufficiently obvious to every candid mind, that these real systems of the astronomers, were the basis on which the . writers of Hindu romance, or modern Puránas, erected their ideal ones of the BRAHMA Calpa, the PADMA Calpa, and the VARAHA Calpa; the two first of which they fancifully represent as past, and affert that we are now in the third or last. But the truth is, that none of these artificial systems are yet expired, (except in the idea of visionaries) nor will be for many millions of years to come.

The number of years now elapsed of the first, - - = 1972948905.

And there are yet to expire, - - - - - 2347051095.

The years elapsed of the Calpa of VARAHA, - - - = 1955884905.

And there remain yet to expire, - - - - 2364115095.

As to the systems which were in use before the invention of these modern ones, and by which the Hindus regulated their history in ancient times, I shall notice them in their proper place.

I HAVE nothing to do with visionary dreams of antiquity, nor with the ideal systems of the Edinburgh Reviewer, my object is truth. The Edinburgh Reviewer says, there is the DEVI Calpa, the SURVA Calpa, and the VISHNU

Calpa; yes, and a great many more, which he will find in the Tantras and other books of the Hindus; as the Gan'es'a Calpa, the Pitri Calpa, the Sa'nti Calpa, &c. But are these astronomical systems? And if they are, upon what authority does he give them as such? For he does not vouchfase to inform his readers where he found them. I am astraid the Reviewer has mistaken the sense of the word Calpa, which he will find to have many meanings. The Hindu astronomers whom I have consulted on the subject, and who certainly are the best judges in matters of this nature, positively deny that there are any such systems as mentioned by the Reviewer; that on the contrary they imply nothing more nor less, than the particular form of worship, directed for each Deity, &c. * and are to be found in that sense only, in the Tantras, &c. Hence, the reader may easily see in what light the Devi Calpa, the Su'ra Calpa, and the Vishnu Calpa, of the Reviewer, are to be considered.

No astronomical system can possibly have a name before it is invented, and whether such system is called by the name of its inventor, or whether sancy or caprice may call it by the name of any Deity, slower, mountain, or any thing else, still this can make no difference whatever with respect to the antiquity of the time in which the system was framed. If therefore the time in which any system was framed be known, (either from that of the inventor, or from the positions of the planets or other data, given in such system,) then I say, that any book in which the name of that particular system is mentioned, cannot possibly be older than the time the system was framed and obtained its name.

THAT system which is contained in the Surya Siddhanta, (though originally invented by VARAHA MIHIRA) is now most certainly called the

^{*} Some writers of romance may have adopted these names as so many systems, but they have nothing to do with real history or astronomy.

Calpa of VARA'HA, or of the Boar, but whether that system obtained its present name from the inventor, or whether fancy has had any share in it since, still this can make no difference, as it can neither encrease nor diminish the antiquity of the system; which from computations sounded on undeniable principles, I have shewn and demonstrated to be only between seven and eight hundred years old; and this I maintain to be true, whether WARA'HA MIHIRA was the inventor of the system or not.

Now, fince this fystem called the Calpa of VARAHA, or of the Boar, has been framed only between seven and eight hundred years, it follows indubitably that any work in which that Calpa is mentioned, cannot possibly be older than the time of its invention, but may be considerably less.

It was not necessary that the name of VARAHA MIHIRA, should occur in the Puranas to prove them modern. For setting VARAHA and his system altogether out of the question, yet still the names not only of the princes in whose reigns he lived, but also of several others down to the last Mahomedan conquest with the years of each reign, are to be found in some of the Puranas; a most certain proof, that these works are not the genuine monuments of primeval times, as imagined by the Reviewer.

"THE mention of the era of Saca in a work attributed to PARASARA

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- " is only decifive against the passage, for we are satisfied no work of great
- " antiquity can exist in a country where the art of printing is unknown
- " free from interpretation. The institutes of TIMUR are now acknowledged

to be genuine and written under the direction of that conqueror, though they are found to contain an account of his own death. Some copyest of the Crist Parosura was acquainted with an useful formulæ which he injudiciously inserted in what he considered its proper place: did our limits permit we could distinctly prove from considerations unconnected with astronomy that the high antiquity attributed to the Hindu records is founded on evidence of a nature almost conclusive."

It would appear then, if my pandit or any other Brabmen, should take it into his head to compose a book, and father it on some ancient philosopher, or Rishi, but from ignorance or inadvertance he should introduce some modern expressions into it, that according to the notions of the Reviewer, the words by which the forgery would be detected, are to be considered as interpolations only, and the rest of the work genuine, though a downright imposition. It seems the Reviewer is not aware of the difference between the style of the ancients and that of the moderns, by which we can in some measure form an opinion whether a work is forged or not. Neither does he seem to be aware that, if an ancient work is interpolated by some modern copyest, several other copies ought to be found free from the interpolation.

PARA'SARA is supposed to have lived near 3000 years ago, and from that time to the era of Saca there were about 1300 years, during which a great number of copies of the Crishi Parásara, might have been written in different parts of India; yet no copy has been ever yet seen, that does not contain the passages alluded to. But independent of this sact, (which is a strong proof of the whole being a modern forgery) the style of PARA'SARA, according to Sir William Jones, resembles that of the Vedá; whereas that of the Crishi Parásara, has not the most distant similitude; and according to the information which I received respecting it, was composed

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THE Reviewer again fays : -

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by a pandit not a great many years ago at Nuddea. We know to a certainty, that books have been ushered into the world under different titles, as if written by different people, and at different periods immensely diftent from each other; though composed by one person only. Of this we have an instance in the five Siddbantas of VARAHA.

The most candid part of the Hindus, indeed, will acknowledge, that literary forgeries are thus frequently committed; yet, at the same time, they endeavour to palliate it by saying, that men are under the necessity of doing so, in consequence of the depravity of the age we live in, which can relish nothing, but what is supposed to bear the stamp or appearance of antiquity. Hence, they say, learned men are sometimes under the necessity of sathering their works on the sages of antiquity, to obtain a due respect and attention to their precepts, which, otherwise, would not be attended to. And with respect to modern names or expressions occurring in such books, they are considered by the generality of the Hindus, rather as indubitable proofs of the gift of prophecy which they sirmly believe their ancient sages possessed, than as marks of forgery or interpolation. Hence, every species of literary imposition may be committed without the smallest danger of detection.

WITH respect to those considerations unconnected with astronomy, from which the Reviewer says he could distinctly prove, "that the high antiquity attributed to the Hindu records is sounded on evidence of a nature almost conclusive," we wish he had stated those weighty considerations, or told us where we might find them; for the astronomers and others now engaged in investigating the antiquities, arts, and sciences of India, are unwilling to take his ipse dixit for it; particularly as he had but the moment before totally destroyed the credibility of those very

"antiquity can exist in a country where the art of printing is unknown, free from interpolation." How is it possible then, that they are to be considered as ancient records, when every line of them may be interpolated? who can pretend to judge of those parts which are genuine, and those which are not? for, certainly, it is not necessary that a part that is interpolated should have any date or mark annexed to it, by which it might be known; therefore, the authenticity of works so interpolated, must be as sully to all intents and purposes destroyed, as if the whole were an actual forgery.

THE Reviewer should only judge for himself,—for, that evidence which he may think is of a nature almost conclusive, may be no evidence at all to others. And, I am afraid, that unless his gymnosophists find a better advocate in their cause, their pretensions to superior antiquity, to arts, and to sciences, must soon fall to the ground.

LASTLY, the Revewer fays,

"By exhibiting the mean refult only, we have given Mr. Bentley's argument an advantage to which it is not entitled, the individual refults from each of the ten data vary from 300 to 1100 years for the age of the Súrya Siddhánta. Hence the only legitimate inference that can be deduced is either that the heavenly bodies were fo inaccurately observed by the author as to furnish no basis for calculation, or that the observations were made at a period prodigiously anterior to that assumed by Mr. Bentley. The first alone is admissible, and in that we are disposed to acquiesce."

LEST, however, his readers should not be inclined to admit of such a conclusion, he endeavours to throw a suspicion on the whole; thus:

"But when it is recollected how many collations, refearches, and ingenious conjectures have been requisite to restore Greek and Roman writers to their prissine sense, some enquiry would be necessary refunctions the manuscript used by Mr. Bentley, and the certainty of his comprehending his text which he interprets differently from his instructors. At present Mr. Bentley is involved in the following descent lemma, either that the observations of the heavenly bodies contained in the Suyra Siddbanta are wholly erroneous, or that they were not made at the period he conjectures."

whether the copy of the Súrya Siddhánta in my possession was correct or not, by merely referring to a paper of Mr. Davis, in the second volume of the Asiatick Researches, page 232. He might have calculated the places of the planets from the numbers there exhibited, and compared them with those given by me; which would have skewn him whether I deviated from my instructors or not. If he found that I had committed a material error, or deviated from truth, he would then have been justified in exposing it to the world. On the other hand, if he found that I was right, it would have been equally his duty to have candidly acknowledged it. For, as Pope very justly says, respecting the moral qualities of a good Critic:

'Tis not enough wit, ART and LEARNING join; In all you fpeak, let TRUTH and CANDOUR shine.

It is much to be lamented that the very reverse of this, is but too often the case, and that men suffer their judgment to be biassed by their prejudices. By exhibiting the mean result of ten different operations*, viz. 731 years for the age of the Surya Siddhanta, the Reviewer conceived he did me more justice than I was entirled to, and therefore to counteract it as he thought, instead of giving the whole of the different results from which his readers would be enabled to form a just opinion, he makes choice of the two extreme results as differing most from the mean, and concludes from thence that either the heavenly bodies were so inaccurately observed by the author as to furnish no basis for calculation, or that the observations were made at a period prodigiously anterior to that given by me.

Now, it must be immediately apparent to any man of common sense, that by taking the two extreme results only, no other inserence could, consistently with truth, be drawn from thence, but that the work must have been written at some period between these extremes; the mean of which $= \frac{1105+340}{2} = 722 \text{ years}.$

In computations depending on a number of observations, it is well known that astronomers reject such as are found to differ most from the mean result; for, in all cases some of the data from their nature, will be more er-

. These were the results	which t	the Revi	ewer oug	ht to have	given his readers.
Moon's apogre, gav	c .			1000	605 years,
Moon's node,	2	The second		Auto .	580
Sun's apogee, -					1105
Venus, -	200	100	200	15 197	860
MARS,	4.		1 19		340
Moon, -		-	-		759
JUPITER, -	*		Man La		875
SATURN, -	5711±	DIXEC	NO CO	Links	805
Mars's aphelion,			MEL ()		-641
Length of the year,		Harrie .			736
Mean age,		Bar.		1 9	731

roneous and less to be depended on than others. Had the Edinburgh Reviewer therefore adopted this plan, and rejected the extremes 1105, and 340, as too incorrect, no fault whatever could be found with him for so doing; for, the remaining eight results would still have been more than sufficient, to answer the purpose required.

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But his views, as may be easily seen, were to endeavour, if possible, to discredit any investigation that should in the smallest degree tend to open the eyes of the public with respect to the true antiquity of Hindu books; and therefore he asserts, that the heavenly bodies must have been so inaccurately observed by the author, as to surnish no basis for calculation, or that the observations were made at a period prodigiously anterior to that assigned by me. Why did he not point out what these errors were, that his readers might judge of the truth or salschood of his affertions?

Bur in order to thew the fallacy of the Reviewer's argument, let us endeavour, if possible, to ascertain the quantity of the errors from the years only, on which the Reviewer grounds his notions.

The years are obtained by dividing the error in the position of the planet at a certain instant, by the error in the mean annual motion; which by its gradual accumulation, is supposed to have caused the error in position. Therefore, suppose we denote the error in position by x, and that in the mean annual motion by y, and that $\frac{x}{y} = 1105$; it is required from thence, to determine the quantities x and y, which the Edinburgh Reviewer would wish to make his readers believe, must be so extraordinary great, as to leave no basis for calculation: I say it is absolutely impossible, nor does the nature of the case admit of such an unjust inference. For, any two quantities whatever, whether large or small, that

fuppose x=1105 minutes, and y=1 minute, then, $\frac{1105'}{1'}=1105$. Again, suppose x=1105 seconds, and y=1 second, then, $\frac{1105'}{1''}=1105$, as before. Or, suppose x=221'' and y=0,2', then, $\frac{221''}{0,2''}=1205$, as before. Hence, it evidently follows, that as 1105, may be deduced from any two quantities however small, that are in the proportion of 1: 1105, so may 340, from any other two quantities whatever, small or large, that are in the proportion of 1: 340. It is, therefore, the heighth of absurdity to pretend to draw any conclusion relative to the supposed quantity of error from the years exhibited; and if we wish to shew the errors, it must be done by a direct computation, and not by ideal notions or sophistry.

Sancing the gold to be out that an item air to

The Reviewer, perhaps, conceived that all the refults should come out exactly the same; if so, it is more than he had a right to expect from the most correct European tables extant. If we examine the second edition of LA LANDE's tables, we shall find that one of the data will give us 318 years for the age of it, and another 243 years: but would this be a sufficient ground to affert, that either the heavenly bodies were so inaccurately observed by the author as to surnish no basis for calculation, or that the observations were made at a period prodigiously anterior to that assigned to LA LANDE's second edition? The error from which the 243 years arise, only amount to about one minute and half, which may shew the Reviewer, that he is not to assume the quantity of the error from the number of years. There are perhaps no astronomical tables in existence, that do not contain errors, but these errors are always less, as or near the time the work is written, than at any distant period whatever. Therefore, to put this matter out of dispute, I shall exhibit in the

following table, the errors in the Súrya Siddbúnta with regard to the places of the planets, &c. at different periods, by which may be known by inspection only, the period of time at or near which it was written.

TABLE of the errors in the Surya Siddhanta, with respect to the places of the Planets &c. at the undermentioned periods.

Planets, &c.	B. 0	C. 3	102.*	1.	C.	499-	A.	C.	999.	1.	Ċ.	1499-	Α.	C.	5099.
	0	1	-1/	0	1	н	0	1.	- "	0	7-	W.	0	1	"
Moon,	5	52	34-	0	20	14-	0	01	02-	0	07	39+	3	43	37 +
apogee,	30	11	25-	4	52	53 -	1	21	59-	2	09	56+	27	27	28+
node,	23	37	31+	3	56	06+	1	12	01+	1	32	04-	21	13	29-
VENUS,	92	43	36-	3	33	41-	0	29	22+	4	32	25+	33	42	20+
MARS,	12	05	42+	2	82	42+	1	13	08+	0	06	27 -	9	39	27-
aphel.	9	47	00+	1	30	50+	0	21	55+	0	47	00	9	03	11-
JUPITER,	17	12	36-	1	48	56-	0	24	20+	2	38	36+	18	01	45+
									100	100	10730		100		57 -
Suns apogee.													4	23	22 -
CHINDEN COL	-1031	2 17	DATE OF		3,043	re CHR	100	19(2)(2	AL WELL	1-74T-LT	977	43.003	11:	and a	or the

By comparing the errors given in the preceding table at the different periods, with each other, it will appear, that they were least between feven and eight hundred years ago; which clearly demonstrates that the Súrya Siddhánta, was written at or near that time. For, all astronomical works, whether founded on real or artificial systems, must necessarily give the positions of the planets nearer the truth, at, or about the time in which they were originally framed, than at any other distant period whatever either before or after.

WITH respect to the errors in the places of the planets as computed

from the Surya Siddbanta, they are not to be attributed to incorrect observations; for, they principally arise from the nature of the artificial system
adopted by the author, which did not admit of a nearer approach to truth;
in order to explain which, it is necessary to be observed, that in the Hindu
artificial systems, the astronomers fix on a point of time back as an epoch,
at which they assume the planets, &c. to have been in a line of mean conjunction in the beginning of Aries in the Hindu sphere. But as no period
can be found, at which the planets were actually in a line of mean conjunction, it must be obvious, that the motions requisite to give the mean
places of the planets when the system is framed, commencing from any
such assumed epoch of mean conjunction, must deviate more or less
from the truth. For, the mean motions of such of the planets, as
were actually passed the position assumed, will come out greater, and
those that sell short of it less than the truth, in proportion to the
differences between the real and assumed mean places.

Thus:—suppose n, to be the number of years expired from the assumed epoch of mean conjunction at the time the system is framed, and let M, be the real mean annual motion of a planet deduced from observations or otherwise; then $M \times n$, would be the mean place of the planet at the end of n years from the epoch of assumed mean conjunction, provided the planet was in the position assumed. But if $M \times n$, was found to exceed or fall short of the real mean place of the planet at the end of n years, then, it is evident, that the planet was not in the position assumed at the epoch, and the motion must be encreased or diminished accordingly, so as to make it give the real mean position of the planet;—for instance, suppose that $M \times n$, sell short of the real position of the planet at the end of n years, by the charter of the real position of the planet at the end of n years, by the charter of the real position of the planet at the end of n years, by the charter of the real position of the planet at the end of n years, by the charter of the real position of the planet at the end of n years, by the charter of the real position of the planet at the end of n years, by the charter of the real position of the planet at the end of n years, by the charter of the real position of the planet at the end of n years, by the charter of the real position of the planet at the end of n years, by the charter of the real position of the planet at the end of n years, by the charter of the real position of the planet at the end of n years, by the charter of the real position of the planet at the end of n years, by the charter of the real position of the planet at the end of n years, by the charter of the real position of the planet at the end of n years.

if $M \times n$, exceeded the real mean place by the quantity d, then $M = \frac{d}{n}$, would be the motion required. Hence, it must be evident, that the mean annual motions deduced on these principles, must be always affected by the differences between the real mean places of the planets, and that assumed at the epoch.

THE motions requifite to give the real mean places of the planets being afcertained, the aftronomer in the next place affumes, at pleafure, any convenient cycle of years, and affigns the number of revolutions of each planet in that cycle.

In computing the number of revolutions of each planet, in order to avoid fractions, he rejects such as are less than six signs, as of no confequence; and, for the rest, he takes the next greater entire number. Unless he may deem it necessary, in some instances, to encrease or diminish a little the motions; in which case, though the fraction may be under six signs, he may take the next higher number to encrease the motion, or if above six signs, he may reject it, to diminish the motion.

FROM the revolutions thus obtained, the mean places of the planets in the heavens are determined by the following proportion:

As the number of years in the cycle affumed,

Is to the revolutions of any planet in that cycle;

So is the time expired from the epoch affumed,

To the planets mean longitude.

These are the principles on which the fystem given in the Súrya Siddhánta, as far as relates to the planets, is founded, and which I shall now proceed to demonstrate.

According to the Súrya Siddhánta, the planets are assumed to have been in a line of mean conjunction in the first point of Aries in the Hindu fphere, at the beginning of the Cali Yugs, I shall therefore, carry back the calculation to that time, in order to flew more clearly, the actual. differences between the real mean places of the planets, at that period, and that which was assumed, and the consequent effect thereof on the mean annual motions thence deduced. rie or militare emitter to give

THE year 4900 of the Cali Yug, ended on the 12th of April 1799. at forty-five minutes forty-four feconds past nine P. M. on the meridian of Lanka; or fifty-one minutes forty feconds past four P. M. on the meridian of Paris. The mean places of the planets at that instant of time were, according to the third edition of LA LANDE's tables, as follow :

many steersined, the aftenness in

				is genati						inupul
alle er din				and the same						Unjet
appear ad (s										bul a
Sun,				28,5						HTE
Moon,	3	22	55	09,3	1:, :	Doi 3	02	02	40,8	syods
VENUS,				4					45.5	
MARS,	3	04	50	40,0	obiai	2	13	58	11,5.	Fac
JUPITER.	nei/Loo	29	58	02,1	rvd	ben A	09	05	33,6.	in the
SATURN,	3	24	16	56,1						avin i

Is to the revolutions of any planet in that evelex THE length of the Hindu year, according to the Suyra Siddbanta, is 365 days, 6 hours, 12 minutes, 36 feconds, 33 thirds, 36 fourths, in which time the fun is supposed to make one compleat revolution in his orbit.

d day letter to sociality

Not :- There being an error in the number of revolutions of Mercury, as given in the Sarya Siddl intus it is here omitted,-See Afiatick Researches, volume VI, section 61, page 566.

The mean motions for which, according to LA LANDE's tables, are as follow:

- 07 Eo		Eu	ropea	n fph	nere.	ID OIH	indu	fphere.	
43 39	Tr.	3.		,	WE 19	20 r. 13.	165	, SUNA F	
SUN,	Lil	0	00	00	58,671	100	00	00 00,000	3
Moon,	113	4	12	47	39,284	1304	12	46 40,613	300
VENUS,	1	7	15	12	22,306	01107	15	11 23,635	*
MARS,	0	6	11	25	17,822	0 6	11	24 19,150	A
JUPITER,	0	1	00	21"	49.153	o or	00	20 50,483	
SATURM,	0	0	12	14	08,015	7 10000	12	13 09/343	V

4900 Hindu years, of the above length, are equal to 1789767 days, 21 hours, 45 minutes, 44 feconds; or 4900 Julian years, 42 days, 21 hours, 45 minutes, 44 feconds; the mean motion for which, from LALANDE's tables, are as follow:—

150	1	Europ	ean f	phere.	7	Hindu Sphere.			
Quadit.	56			" "	200	5.		7	and and
Sun,	2	19	51	27,5	May 22	0	00	00	00,0
Moon;	5	21	48	12,3.	10	3	10	56	44,8
VENUS,	3	20	21	37,0	PE.	I	00	30	09.5
MARS,	5	15	55	21,0		2	26	03	53.5
JUPITER,	3	11	54	08,1	ALCOHOL:	0	22	02	40,6
SATURN,	6	14	14	58,1	C. II THE	3	24	23	30,6

which motions being deducted from the mean longitudes at the end of the year 4900 of the Cali Yug, above determined, we shall have their respective mean positions at the beginning of the Cali Yug, the assumed epoch of mean conjunction, as follow:—

and a tables, are as	European	fphe	re.	e di	Hw	iol H	lindu	fphe	re.
	s. o								
SUN,	10 01	01	01			0	00	00	00
Moon	10 01	06	57:	al v	rafan	0	00	05	56
Venus,									
cooMareo co	81160	55	19	CG	00	11	17	54	18
graJupiter, 20									
SATURN, 7									
COLOR TO THE									100

WHENCE, it is evident, the planets were not in the polition affumed.

Now taking the differences between the politions above found in the Hindu
fphere, and that which is affumed in the Surya Siddhanta, noting those
which were past the point assumed, with the sign +, and those which fell
short of it, with the sign -, we shall have

		0			1	- stwoll	thing are as in
Sun,		00	00	00			
Moon,	+	.00	05	56	=	+	356°
VENUS,	+	32	43	36	,, =	+	117816"
MARS,	00	12	05	42	2 50 13	2 5	43542"
JUPITER.		17	02	53	5 es =8a	+ .	61373"
SATURN,	-	20	59	03	5.70 -19	5	75543"
The second second	-	A			THE REAL PROPERTY.	Total Control	

Now, fince the planets were not in the position assumed, by the above differences, it is evident, that if we wish to calculate the mean places of the heavenly bodies, at the end of any number of years from this assumed epoch, we must take the above differences into the account; by adding those of the Moon, Venus and Jupiter, and subtracting those of Mars and Saturn:—Thus, if n, be any number of years whatever, then I say, that

Tanala

PURITUE.

the mean places of the planets at the end of n years, in the Hindu Sphere, will be as follow: ---

the engaged to the away one one; builded their borness done and distanting

THEREFORE, if we divide these by n, we shall have the mean annual motions requifite to give the fame positions at the end of n years, as is accountable, be included in the more regional. Hence, the main mo-

- conga sugo di la ni sen Hindu fphere. log with Europen tables, are as follow: SUN. 13 4 12 46 40,613 + 3564 MOON. 1 7 15 11 23,635 + 117816" VENUS. MARS, 0 6 11 24 19,150 - 43542" JUPITER, 0 1 00 20 50,483 + 61373" SATURN, 0 0 12 13 09,343 - 75543"

HENCE, it is apparent, that all Hindu books or tables, which affume a an conjunction of the planets at the beginning of the Cali Yug, must necessarily give the motions of the Moon, Venus, and Jupiter greater, and those of Mars and Saturn less than the Europeans make them. Said Baradan, Val. V. p 198, 5 by

LET us now put this to the test with respect to the motions in the Surya Siddhanta. I have already shewn, that the Surya Siddhanta must have been written between seven and eight hundred years ago; we shall therefore call it the end of the year 4100 of the Cali Yug, or A. D. 999, which will be near enough our purpose; then n, in the above formulæ, becomes 4100.

In the year A. D. 999, the corrections requifite to be applied to the Moon, Jupiter, and Saturn's mean places, on account of the inequalities in their respective motions arising from mutual attraction, were

These must be brought now into the formulæ as they could not, from being variable, be included in the mean motions. Hence, the mean motions requisite to give the mean places of the planets in A. D. 999, agreeing with European tables, are as follow:—

Hindu sphere.

Sun, 1 0 00 00 60

Moon, 13 4 12 46 40,613 +
$$\frac{356'' + 536''}{4100}$$

Venus, 1 7 15 11 23,635 + $\frac{117816''}{4100}$

Mars, 0 6 11 24 19,150 - $\frac{43542''}{4400}$

Jupiter, 0 1 00 20 50,483 + $\frac{61373'' + 791''.7}{4100}$

Saturn, 0 0 12 13 09,343 - $\frac{75543'' + 1908''}{4100}$

which quantities being reduced, and compared with the motions given in the Surya Siddhanta, we shall have

[.] See Afiatick Refearches, Vol. VI. p. 568. §. 64.

Manuel, which	Fre	om o	com	putati	By	th.	e Súr	ya Si	ddhánta.	
Sun,	of the	5.	0	19 (9)	in the	T.	s.	0	. 1	01*10/10
Sun,	1	0	00	00	00,00	1	0	00	00	00,00
Moon,	13	4	12	46	40,82	13	4	12	46	40,80
VENUS,	E ST	7	15	11	52,36	biarion.	7	15	11	52,80
MARSON	0090	86 I	11	24	108,53	000000	6	II	24	09.60
JUPITER,	8934	T.	00	21	-05,64	08334	1	00	21	06,00
SATURN,	1994	101	12	12	50,48	79.5591	0	12	12	50,40
	Bonn	37			-	574208		48	HAN	

HERE we have a most decisive proof of the principles on which the system given in the Súrya Siddhánta is founded, and consequently of the time at or near which that work was written: for, the motions, above deduced from computation, scarcely differ half a second from those given in the Súrya Siddhánta. But these differences, small as they are, do not arise from errors in observation, but from the revolutions of the planets assigned to the cycle of years assumed by the author of the Súrya Siddhánta.

In the Surya Siddhanta, the least cycle in which the planets are assumed to return to a line of mean conjunction in the beginning of Aries, is 1080000 years. Let the motions above found, therefore, be multiplied by this number, and we shall have

be fat-	Hum Son	Revolutions.	6.	500	e ody	naivigue lo	
						in 1080000	
walle	Moon,	14438334	0	06		crweb-td-1 ale	2 21
the	VENUS,	1755593					
	MARS,	574207					
orit to	JUPITER,	91054		1100		bring in	
23.20% p	JUPITER, SATURN,	36642			E Can	O To com	g tg

Now, taking the nearest entire numbers, except for Mars, which in order to increase its motion a little, take the next greater number, and we shall have

From C	omputation.	dem if	By the Sún	rya Siddhanta.
Sun,	1080000 I	Revolutions.	1080000 R	Levolutions
Moon,	14438334	2-11	14438334	EXPERIMENTAL PROPERTY.
VENUS,	1755594		1755394	
Mars,	574208		574208	_
JUPITER,	91055	base sull	91055	- saali
SATURN,	36642	اللا الله المناج	36642	ur yoah man

THE numbers from computation being the same as in the Surya Siddhanta, the mean motions and positions of the planets, to be from thence deduced, must necessarily be the same also.

If the numbers above found, be multiplied by 4, we shall have the revolutions of the planets in a Mabá Yug, or 4320000 years: and if the revolutions in a Mabá Yug, be multiplied by 1000, we get the revolutions in a Calpa.

THE mode of applying the above numbers to practice, must be sufficiently obvious from the manner in which they are determined, as well as from the rule laid down at page 211. I shall, however, add here a few examples.

ift. Let it be required to determine the Moon's mean longitude, at the end of the year 4100 of the Cali Yug.

THE revolutions of the Moon in the cycle of 1080000 years = 14438334.

STROOT

Hence the longitude required. = \(\frac{14438334 \times 4100}{1080000} = \frac{54812}{54812} \quad 2 \quad 9 \quad 4\frac{9}{0} \quad 0 \\

By LA LANDE'S tables, Hindu sphere, 2'. 9° 41' 10'

Inequality (fee page 216) - + 8 52

Difference, the former short by - *0 0 1 2

Or thus—

2d. LET it be required to determine the Moon's mean longitude, at the end of the year 4100 of the Cali Yug, reckoning the years from the beginning of the Calpa of VARA'HA.

Or thus-

3d. Let it be required to determine the Moon's mean longitude, at the end of the year 4100 of the Cali Yug, reckoning from the end of the Calpa, as directed in the Graha Yamul.

The years in the whole Calpa, - - = 4320000000The years elapsed, as above, - - = 195588_{+100} Therefore to expire in A. D. 999, - 2364115900Hence, $\frac{14438_{334} \times 2364115900}{1080000} = 31605458313$ revol. — 9'. 20° 12' 00' which subtracted from twelve signs, leave - 2 9 48 00 the longitude as before.

^{*} The difference of 1' 2' in the moon's place, arises from the rejection of the fraction 6° in forming the number of revolutions—the real quantity being 14438334 rev. or. 6° instead of which 14438334, was taken as the nearest entire number—fractions not being admitted in the Hindu artiscial systems, and the error produced in consequence = \frac{4100 \times 6°}{1080000} = 1' 2' in A. D. 999. In A. D. 1040, the error was nothing; fince that time it has encreased, and now amounts to upwards of eleven minutes,

My intention in giving these examples is to shew, that as the system is entirely artificial, it is immaterial whether we make the calculation from the beginning of the Calpa, the end of the Calpa, or any other period at which a mean conjunction of the planets in the first point of Aries, is assumed in the system; for the result must ultimately come out the same, either way.

By attending to the principles on which the motions given in the Súrya siddbánta are founded, it must appear evident, that it could not give the places of the planets sufficiently correct, for any considerable length of time: for, as n, the number of years from the epoch of assumed mean conjunction (in the formula page 215) varies, so must the mean annual motions depending thereon. Therefore, those motions which would have given the positions of the planets sufficiently correct, when the Súrya Siddbánta was written, would not answer at present. This sact, the Hindu astronomers discovered, by some means or other, between two and three hundred years ago;—they found, that in order to have the places of the planets sufficiently accurate, it was necessary to subtract three revolutions from those of Venus; two from those of Jupiter; and to add three revolutions to those of Saturn, in 1080000 years.

THE works in which these corrections are given, are, the Siddhanta Rahasya, dated in 1513 Saca; Graha Tarangini, dated 1530; Siddhanta Munjari, dated 1531; and several others of modern date now in use.

THESE corrections appear to have been introduced about 245 years ago: therefore, let us try how far they will agree with our formula page 215. Let the time at which they were introduced, be supposed the end of the year 4660 of the Cali Yug, or A. D. 1559. Then, substituting 4660, for

n, in the formula, we shall have the mean annual motions requisite to give the places of the planets at that time, agreeing with European tables as follow:

Sum, - 1 0 00 00 00 - Moon, - 13 4 12 46 40,613 +
$$\frac{356}{4660}$$
 Venus, - 1 7 15 11 23,635 + $\frac{117816\%}{4660}$ Mars, - 0 6 11 24 19,150 - $\frac{43542\%}{4660}$ Saturn, - 0 0 12 13 09,343 - $\frac{75543\%}{4660}$

The corrections on account of the inequalities in the motions of the Moon, Jupiter, and Saturn, being at this period inconfiderable, they are accordingly neglected as of no confequence: therefore, the above quantities being reduced and compared with the motions in the modern tables, we shall have

tell many	rom e	omp	utati	Modern Hindu tables.					
The required	r.	5.	0		-	T. S.	. :		
Suni	1	0	001	00	00,000	1 0	00 00	00,00	
· Moon,					40,70	13 4	12 46	40,80	
VENUS,	L	7	15	NI	48,92	1 7	15 11	49,20	
MARS,	0	6	11	24	09,85		11 24		
JUPITER,	0.1	1	00	21	03,65		00 21		
SATURN,	0	0	120	12	53,13		12 12	9	

THE agreement between which, is sufficiently obvious. Let the motions above found, be now multiplied by 1080000, the number of years in the assumed cycle, and we shall have

inpyr modil	m. Magn	S (D/T) R	11-A 4			Revolutions.	6.	0
Sun,			i tanie		4	1080000	0	0
Moon,		~	-		-	14438333	11	0
VENUS,		-	-	×	-	1755590	9	6
MARS,	-		100		1.0	574208	2	3
JUPITER,	184	-	1.1-		-	91053	0	15
SATURN,	1- 1- 1- H	7 =	-1-		17	36644	3	00

Now taking the nearest entire numbers, (except for Saturn, which in order to encrease its motion a little, we take the next greater number) and we shall have

From computation.		Modern Hindu tables.		
SUN,	to80000 revol.	1080000 revol.		
Moon,	14488334	14438334		
VENUS,	1755591	1755591		
MARS,	574208	574208 —		
JUPITER,	91053	98053		
SATURN,	36645 —	36645 —		

HAVING thus, I hope, fully and clearly, demonstrated the principles on which the Hindu artificial systems of astronomy are founded, and shewn that according to these principles, the Súrya Siddhánta must have been written between seven and eight hundred years ago, and at no other period whatever; it must now be obvious to every candid mind, that the assertions of the Edinburgh Reviewer are totally unfounded.

THE table exhibited in page 209, will shew how much he must have been mistaken in his notions, with regard to the basis of calculation: For, if there was no such basis, then, the errors, or differences in that table,

ought at every period to be the same, neither encreasing nor diminishing; the contrary of which most clearly appears. For, between seven and eight hundred years ago, the errors were least, and encrease gradually whether we go back into antiquity, or forward from that period; which demonstrates, beyond the power of contradiction, that the work was written at or about that time.

likewise, that no other motions could have been given, to correspond to the positions of the planets, with which they must agree. Therefore, I say it is indispensably requisite, that the Edinburgh Reviewer, if he does not chuse to acknowledge his error with the candour due from a gentleman, should distinctly point out to his readers and the world at large, that precise period of time, so prodigiously anterior to that given by me, at which, the Surya Cithhanta, in his ideas, gave the positions of the heavenly bodies nearer the truth, than between seven and eight hundred years ago. And, not only point out the precise time, but also, the then actual mean positions of the planets, &c. according to the Surya Siddbanta, and the best modern European tables. It is by these means only, he can convince his readers, of his candour, truth, and abilities.

As I have in the preceding pages stated fully, all that can be necessary respecting the principles of the *Hindu* artificial systems of astronomy, the Surya Siddhanta, and the antiquity of the system it contains; I shall now take leave of the Reviewer, and proceed to other matters of more importance to those who wish to form a true judgment of the real antiquity of the *Hindu* history, &c.

Most of the Eastern nations, and the Hindus in particular, appear to have employed from time immemorial, artificial systems not only in

astronomy, but also for chronological purposes. Therefore, to form a just idea of the Hindu history and its antiquity, a knowledge of these systems, and of the various changes that have taken place from time to time, is absolutely necessary.

Two of the most ancient Hindu systems now known, and which in early times were applied to the purposes of chronology, are contained in an astronomical work entitled the Graba Manjari. This work is extremely valuable, as it enables us to fix with precision, the real periods of Hindu history with their respective durations; and to shew from thence, the alterations that have since taken place, by the introduction of new systems.

THE field system mentioned in this work consisted of 2400000 years, which was called the Calpa.—This period was divided into Manwantaras and Tugs, " as follow:

A Satya Yug confifted of.	960 years
A Treia, respectively	sill 720 lilloq
A Dwapar, Person	480
A Cali,	240
A Maha Yug,	2400
-1 Mahá Yugs,	170400
with a Salya of,	960
A Manwantara,	171360
14 Manwantaras,	2399040
Form the whole Calpa,	2400000

The Calpa, is also divided into 1000 Maha Yuga, of 2400 years each.

The years expired of the above system at the era of Vicrama DITYA, were 1190627; which being reduced into Manwantaras and Yugs, we shall have

A Satya at the beginning,	all 19	mi-	960
6 Manwantaras compleat,	Tanger.	LM	1028160
67 Mahá Yugs of the 7th Manwantara,	1	dui,	160800
thence to the era of VICRAMA'DITYA,	•	-	- 707
Total years expired,	This last		1190627

Hence, it appears that the Cali Yug, of the 67th Mahá Yug, of the 7th Manwantara of this fystem, ended 707 years, before the era of VicramaDITYA, or 764 years before Christ—Therefore

The Satya Yug, or golden age, began	-	B. C.	3164
The Trét.i Yug, or filver age, -		7	2204
The Dwapar Yug, or brazen age,		T-SUM	1484
The Cali Yug, or iron age, -			1004
and ended,		-	764
making in all 2400 years.			

During the first period of 960 years, called the golden age, the *Hindus* have no real history; the whole being fabulous except what relates to the flood, which is allegorically represented by the fish incarnation.

WITH the second period, or filver age, the Hindu empire commence under the Solar and Lunar dynasties; and from Budha, the son of Soma, the first of the Lunar line, they reckon about fifty reigns down

to the end of the Dwapar, which make at an average twenty-four years to a reign.*

Towards the close of the fourth period this system appears to have been laid aside, as the repeating the same names over again, would in time cause a confusion in history.

THE next fystem mentioned in the Graha Munjari, consisted of 387600000 years, which was called the term of BRAHMA's life. This period is divided and subdivided in the following manner:

A Calpa, is called a day of Brahma, which in this fystem contains,

- - - 5000 years

And his night is of the same length,

A day and night therefore,

of such days and nights make a month,

And 12 such months a year,

And 107 such years and eight months make the full

period of Brahma's life,

- - 387600000

THE Calpa, or day of BRAHMA, is divided into Manwantaras and Yugs, in the following manner:

^{*} The Trita and Davapar together make 1200 years, which divided by 50, give 24 years to a reign. It is somewhat remarkable that the principal Eastern nations date the commencement of their empires from nearly the same time. Thus we find the Chinese empire began under the dynasty of Hia, acc rding to Blartair.

B. C. 2207
The kingdom of Egypt,

The empire of India under the solar and lunar lines,

2224

of designations and consecutive the				years.	menths.
A Satya contains, -			-0.0	2	0
A Trétá, — -	-		-	1	6
A Dwapar,			-	1	0
A Cali,	100		4	0	6
A Mahá Yug, -	-		-	5	0 *
					-
71 Mahá Yugs, -	1	-17		355 Y	ears
with a Satya of, -		-	The same	2	
- OF MENTAL OF LAND		to I		-	
make a Manwantara of,	-			357	
0 1 34	4		-		100 646
14 Such Manwantaras, -				1998	
which with a Satya at begin	ning, -	-	11,11-	2	Laborate St
make a Calpa or day of BRA	нма,	-	- (5000 ye	ears

THE years expired of this system at the beginning of the Satya or golden age of the former system, were,

Add thence to the Christian era,

Total years expired at the Christian era,

212563164

AFTER 193799286 years, had been expired of BRAHMA's life, he for the first time created the Earth, and ordained that at the end of every Calpa or 5000 years, it should be destroyed and again reproduced.

Therefore, from the years elapsed, - 212563164

Take the years at the first creation - 193799286

Remain - 18763878

the years from the first creation to the Christian era-which being divided

This Tug of five years is to be met with in many books,

m

by 5000, the quotient will be the number of times the world has been destroyed and created, and the remainder will shew the years expired since the last creation.

Thus, $\frac{18763878}{5000} = 3752$ times destroyed and created, and 3878 years, from the last creation to the *Christian* era.—Now fince there are 357 years in each *Manwantara*, we have the date of the commencement of each as follow:

The first Manwan	ntara,				B. C.	3878 year	s.
The fecond,	-	-	-	-		3521	-
The third,	-	-	-	-	-	3164	-
The fourth,	-	-	-	-	PERM	2807 -	-
The fifth,	-	-		-	-	2450	_
The fixth,	-		-	-		2093 -	-
The feventh,	-		-	-		1736 -	-
The eighth,	-	-		1000		1379 -	-
The ninth,	-	Library.			-	1022	-
The tenth,	-	-		*		665 -	TAL
The eleventh,	-		-		-	308 —	
The twelfth,	-		-	de Co	A, C	49 —	-
The thirteenth,		-	-	-	at	406	-
The fourteenth,	that last	didaza	m of L	er all	SETTIVE	763 -	
and ended.		anielia	100		14	1120 - 4	100
naking in all about					two years	tin his law	2.17

HAVING thus exhibited the periods of ancient history, according to both fystems, the annexed table will now shew at one view the commencement of each period, by which the corresponding times in each system, may be more easily seen and understood.

By this table, it will appear that, the Satya or golden age as we may call it, of the first system, began on the same year that the third Manwantara of the second system did; that is, the year before Christ 3164. And that the ninth Manwantara, of the second system, began the year B. C. 1022, only eighteen years after the commencement of the Cali, or iron age, of the sirst system.

Hence, from the beginning of the third Manwantara, down to that of the ninth, includes, nearly, the same time as the Satya, Trêtá and Dwápar of the first system; and consequently, that the events of history recorded in these periods, if transferred to the former, should be found under those particular Manwantaras, which corresponded with the actual times in which they happened: unless, purposely destroyed or perverted, in modern times, to prevent a discovery of the change that has been made in the systems.

THEREFORE, without entering minutely into the Hindu history, let us fee how far the periods of the two ancient systems agree, with respect to the same events, which will be the most certain mode of proving the truth of these systems.

THE Hindus place the flood in the Satya or golden age:—on referring to the Manwantaras we find, according to the Marcandéya purana, that the flood took place in the fourth Manwantara, and that the fourth Menu, derived his name, Ta'masa, from the universal darkness which then overspread the earth—therefore the two systems agree in this point.

THE next period is the Tréta or filver age, at or about the commencement of which, the Hindu empire began under the Solar and Lunar dynasties. BUDHA, the son of Soma, the son of ATRI,

was the first of the Lunar line, and from him down to the end of the Dwápar or brazen age (being 1200 years) there were about sifty reigns. Now
by referring to the table, we see that the beginning of the Trêtá of the
first system, corresponds to the latter part of the fifth Manwantara of the
second; we therefore naturally look into the Puránas under that period,
and there find among other names of persons who then lived, those of
Atri, So'Ma, and Budha, which shews the exact agreement between the
two systems.

We next come to the fixth Manwantara, * which by the table began 111 years later than the Trétá or filver age. Among the names we find mentioned in the Puránas in this period are Bhrīgu and Dacsha, who appear to have been cotemporary or nearly fo.—For, Yayati the fourth prince in descent from Budha in the Lunar dynasty, according to the Puránas, was married to Devayani, the granddaughter of Bhrīgu, by whom he begat two sons, Yadu and Turvasu; and by Sarmishta, the daughter of Vrīshaparvan, the grandson of Dacsha, he begat three sons more, viz. Druhya, Anu and Puru; consequently, Bhrīgu and Dacsha must have lived about the same period, and that Budha, could have been earlier only by a few years, perhaps one or two generations at most. These circumstances, though they may appear to some at first sight as trivial, involve sacts of considerable importance in the Hindu history, while at the same time they prove the truth of the ancient systems.

Dacsha appears to have been an astronomer, and to have formed the twenty seven lunar mansions and other constellations, of which he is allegorically called the Father, as in the following verse of the Cálicá Purána.

Before CHRIST 2093.

चेतायाः प्रथमेभागे नाता दहास्य कायकाः । सददौ कायकाः सम्नविंशतिंच सुधाशवे॥

THAT is—" In the early part of the Tréta Yug, the daughters of DAC" SHA were born; of these daughters he gave twenty-seven to the
" Moon."

DACSHA, in some respects bears a strong resemblance to ATLAS, who according to heathen mythology, was the father of the Pleiades and Myades, the Critical and Robini of DACSHA. ATLAS is supposed by some to have been the son of ASIA, the daughter of OCEANUS:—
The Puranas make DACSHA the grandson of the daughter of OCEANUS.

WE next proceed to the 7th Manwantara. Among the names given in the Puranas in this period, we find those of Jamadagni, Bis'wa'mitra, and Bharadwa'ja, men, who according to the Hindu history, lived towards the close of the Trêtá Yug; for, Jamadogni was the father of Paras'urama, and nephew of Bis'wa'mitra. Hence, the two systems agree in this point.

THE next period we come to, is the Dwapar Yug, or brazen age of the first system. This period is rendered famous in the Hindu history by the war that took place towards the close of it, between the sons of DHRITARASHTRA and those of PANDU.

Among the names of men, we find mentioned in Hindu history as living in this period, are those of Para'sara, Vya's his fon, Garga, Ga'Lava, Aswattha'man, Causica, Di'Ptima'n, Cripa, Rishyas'ringa, &c.

was the first of the Lunar line, and from him down to the end of the Dwápar or brazen age (being 1200 years) there were about fifty reigns. Now
by referring to the table, we see that the beginning of the Trêtá of the
first system, corresponds to the latter part of the fifth Manwantara of the
fecond; we therefore naturally look into the Puranas under that period,
and there find among other names of persons who then lived, those of
Atri, Soma, and Budha, which shews the exact agreement between the
two systems.

We next come to the fixth Manwantara, * which by the table began III years later than the Trêtá or filver age. Among the names we find mentioned in the Puránas in this period are Bhrīgu and Dacsha, who appear to have been cotemporary or nearly fo.—For, Yavati the fourth prince in descent from Budha in the Lunar dynasty, according to the Puránas, was married to Devayani, the granddaughter of Bhrīgu, by whom he begat two sons, Yadu and Turvasu; and by Sarmishta, the daughter of Vrīshaparvan, the grandson of Dacsha, he begat three sons more, viz. Druhya, Anu and Puru; consequently, Bhrīgu and Dacsha must have lived about the same period, and that Budha, could have been earlier only by a few years, perhaps one or two generations at most. These circumstances, though they may appear to some at first sight as trivial, involve sacts of considerable importance in the Hindu history, while at the same time they prove the truth of the ancient systems.

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^{*} Before CHRIST 2093.

चेतायाः प्रथमेभागे नाता दहास्य कायकाः । सददौ कायकाः सप्तविंशतिंच सुधांशवे ॥

THAT is—" In the early part of the Treta Yug, the daughters of DAC" SHA were born; of these daughters he gave twenty-seven to the
" Moon."

DACSHA, in some respects bears a strong resemblance to ATLAS, who according to heathen mythology, was the father of the Pleiades and Myades, the Critical and Robins of DACSHA. ATLAS is supposed by some to have been the son of ASIA, the daughter of OCEANUS:—
The Puranas make DACSHA the grandson of the daughter of OCEANUS.

WE next proceed to the 7th Manwantara. Among the names given in the Puranas in this period, we find those of Jamadagni, Bis'wa'mitra, and Bharadwa'ja, men, who according to the Hindu history, lived towards the close of the Trêtá Yug; for, Jamadogni was the father of Paras'ura'ma, and nephew of Bis'wa'mitra. Hence, the two systems agree in this point.

THE next period we come to, is the Dwapar Yug, or brazen age of the first system. This period is rendered famous in the Hindu history by the war that took place towards the close of it, between the sons of DHRITARASHTRA and those of PANDU.

Among the names of men, we find mentioned in Hindu history as living in this period, are those of Para'sara, Vya's his fon, Garga, Ga'Lava, Aswattha'man, Causica, Di'Ptima'n, Cripa, Rishyas'ringa, &c.

By reference to the table, this period corresponds to the eighth Manwantara of the second system, under which we accordingly look in the Puránas, and find, as might naturally be expected, among others, the following names, viz. Vya's, Ga'lava, Aswattha'man, Causica Di'etima'n, Cripa and Rishyas'ringa*.

HAVING thus fully and clearly proved the truth of the ancient systems, it is unnecessary to proceed farther in the way of comparisons; nor indeed could we, as the fourth period ended shortly after.

WE shall, therefore, now proceed to some of the observations that have been lest us by PARA'SARA, GARGA, and others of the ancients, which will enable us to judge with more certainty of the actual time in which they lived, as well as of the progress then made in the science of assro-nomy in India.

Ir appears from what is stated in the Páráfarí Sanbitá, relative to the commencement of the six Hindu seasons, that the solstial colure, had passed through the sirst point of Dhanisht'há and the middle of Assephá, while the equinoctial colure, cut the tenth degree of Bharaní and 3° 20' of Visac'há.

THE same positions of the colures are also given in a little treatise on ancient astronomy, annexed to one of the Védás, in the possession of Mr. Colebrooke, which he obligingly lent me, the sixth verse of which runs thus:

In each Manwantara, down to the fourteenth, only a few names are given us in the prefent Puránas, which feem to have been extracted from fome larger works, that are not now to be found.

प्रपदोते स्विषादौ सूर्या चाद्र मसावुदक्। सापाई दक्षिणार्कस्तु माव स्वावणयोः सदा ॥

THAT is—" In the beginning of S'ravisht'ba, the Sun and Moon ascend towards the North, and in the middle of Sárpa, or the mansion of the serpent, the Sun goes towards the South; the former, always in Magh, the latter in S'ravana."

ABOUT the year A. D. 527, the folfitial colure, according to BRAHMA' GUPTA, cut U. A'shara in 3° 20', and Punarvasu in the tenth degree, which made a difference in the positions of the colures, of 23° 20', from the time of Para'sara. For, the longitude of the first point of S'ravisht'ha in the Hindu Sphere is,

And 3°-20' of U. A'shara, = 9 s. 23° 20'

Difference or precession to A. D. 527, = 9 00 00

Which at 50 seconds per annum gives, - 1680 years

Add from A. D. 527, to this time, = 1277

Total years fince the time of PARA'SARA, - 2957

Which make about one hundred and fifty years, before the beginning of the Cali Yug of the first system of the Graha Munjari; or about one hundred and thirty-one years, before the end of the eighth Manwantara of the fecond system.

It appears also from the little work above mentioned, and its commentary wherein GARGA is repeatedly quoted, that the Sun and Moon were supposed to return to a line of conjunction in the first point of S'ravisht'ha, at the instant of the winter solstice at the end of every cycle or Yug of five years. In this period the moon was supposed to make sixty-two revolutions to the sun, and sixty-seven to the same fixed star,

or the equinox; for, it feems, they had no knowledge of the precession of the equinoxes at that time.

THE number of mean folar days assigned to this cycle of five years was 1830, and the number of lunar days in the same time 1860. Hence

as 1830, and the number of lunar days in the fame time 1860. There is, The folar days in a year,
$$=\frac{1830}{5}$$
 $=366$ days 2d, The lunar days in a year, $=\frac{1860}{5}$ $=372\%$ 3d, The moon's mean annual motion $=\frac{67}{5}=13-4$ 24-0 0 4th, The moon's daily motion, $=\frac{67}{1830}=13$ 10 49 $\frac{11}{61}$ 3th, The moon's periodical revol. $=\frac{1830}{67}=27-7-31-20$ $\frac{40}{67}$ 6th, The moon's fynodical revol. $=\frac{1830}{62}=29$ 12 23 13 $\frac{17}{31}$

Dandas, or twelve hours forty-eight minutes; consequently, the latitude of the place of observation must have been about 13° ½ North. There is no mention made in this work, nor in that of PARA'SARA, of the names of the days of the week, or of the twelve signs; which seem to have been introduced into the Hindu astronomy at a much later period.

The lunar days in the cycle were,

The lunar days in a year,

The ancient Hindus made it as above,

The difference is \(\frac{1}{4} \) of a lunar day, which being taken from 366 the folar days, leave 365\(\frac{1}{4} \) days for the difference is \(\frac{1}{4} \) of a lunar day, which being taken from 366 the folar days, leave 365\(\frac{1}{4} \) days for the difference is \(\frac{1}{4} \) of a lunar day, which being taken from 366 the folar days, leave 365\(\frac{1}{4} \) days for the difference is \(\frac{1}{4} \) of a lunar day, which is in eight years make 2922 folar days—Hence, \(\frac{2002}{59} = 29 \) 12 21 49 \(\frac{1}{14} \) the lunation of Cadmus, which is \(\frac{1}{24} \) thort of the ancient Hindu lunation.

^{*} Cadmus about fifteen centuries before Chaist introduced the Officieris or cycle of eight years into Greece. In this cycle there were ninty-nine lunations of thirty lunar days each. Therefore,

From the above short sketch, the reader will be able to judge of the progress made in astronomy in *India* near 3000 years ago. He will perceive that the *Hindus* at that time, possessed nothing that could be called astronomy, no more than other nations:

The Hindus made the lunation then, = 29 - 12 - 23 $= 13 \frac{17}{31}$ The Europeans make it now, = 29 - 12 - 23 $= 13 \frac{17}{31}$ Difference about, $= 20 + 9\frac{1}{2}$ Which in lefs than 165 years would produce an error of one lunation.

AFTER this period, we meet with nothing on aftronomy till we come down to BRAHMA GUPTA, being a space of about 1680 years, which seems to be an entire blank in the Hindu astronomy. This astronomer flourished about A. D. 527, and finding that the ancient systems were very impersed, on account of the shortness of the periods, he framed an entire new system, on a much larger scale, making the Calpa to consist of 4320000000 years. To this cycle or period of years, he assigned the following revolutions of the planets, &c.

Planets.		Apsides.	Nodes. retro.	
Sun,	4320000000	480	State of the	
Moon,	57753300000	488105858	232311168	
MERCURY,	17936998984	332	511	
VENUS,	7022389492	653	893	
Mars,	2296828522	292	267	
JUPITER,	364226455	855	63	
SATURN,	146567298	41	584	

[&]quot;This makes an error of one day in less than fix years, which shews that the *Hindus* at that period, could not determine the times of conjunctions and oppositions of the Sun and Moon for fix years together correct, much less eclipses; the calculation of which, they must have been then, and for many ages after, totally unacquainted with.

THE revolution of the equinoxes, in 4320000000 years, = 199669

Mean folar days, - - - 1577916450000

Lunar days or tithus, - - - 1602999000000

He made Sunday* the first day of the Calpa, on which day, at sun rise, the planets &c. are assumed to have been in a line of mean conjunction in the first point of Aries in the Hindu sphere. The years expired of this system on the 1st of Vaisacba (or Vysakh) this year, = 1972948905. Hence, the mean places of the planets &c. may be computed, from the above data, for any instant required.

This is the third and last system, to which the Hindus have transferred their history, and for which purpose, in imitation of the ancients, they divide it into Manwantaras and Yugs, as follow:

A Satya Yug of, -		-	-	1728000 years.
A Tretá of,				1296000
A Dwapar of, -		-	-	864000
A Cali of, -	-	- 116		432000
A Mabá Yug,	TOTAL .	. 100	-	4320000
71 Mahá Yugs,	-	M.		306720000
with a Satya of,	-	534		1728000
A Manwantara,	-	2011-1		308448000
14 Manwantaras,	-			4318272000
with a Satya at beginning	ng of,		-	1728000 —
The modern Calpa,		-		4320000000

^{*} This is the first system, so far as we yet know, in which the names of the days of the week and the twelve signs were introduced. These were probably received from the West, and the first point of Aries was fixed to that point in the Hindu sphere, which corresponded with the instant of the vernal equinox, which, in the time of Brahma' Gufta, was the beginning of Assimi. This position, has therefore a direct reference to the actual time to twelve signs were first introduced, that is to say near 1300 years ago; though hitherto but little, if at all, attended to by writers on the Hindu astronomy, &c.

In order to shew how the Hindu history, according to the two former systems, had been transferred to this, let 1972948905, the years now expired be reduced into Manwantaras and Yugs, and we shall have

	- O-) min the man maye
A Satya at the beginning,	= 1728000 years.
6 Manwantaras compleat, -	= 1850688000
27 Mahá Yugs of the 7th Manwanta	ra, = 116640000
Satya of the 28th Mahá Yug,	- 1728000
Trétá of ditto,	- 1266000
Dwapar of ditto,	- 864000 -
Expired of the Cali of ditto,	- 4905
Total years expired,	- 1972948905.

HENCE, it is evident that, we are now in the 4906th year of the Cali Yug, of the twenty-eighth Mahá Yug, of the seventh Manwantara of this new system.

Now, if we transfer the names &c. in the four ages of the first system of the Graha Munjari, to the Satya, Trétà, Dwápar and Cali abovementioned, and those in the Manwantaras of the second system, to the Manwantara of the same name in this; then we shall have the periods of Hindu history according to modern notions, sounded on the system of BRAHMA GUPTA.

In the first place, by transferring the names &c. in the Dwapar Yug of the first system, to the period of the same name in the new system, PARA'SARA, VYA's and others, who lived near three thousand years ago, are thrown back into antiquity about 5000 years; and the same persons who lived in the eighth Manwantara, of the second system, by the transfer,

will appear as yet to come; for we are now only in the feventh of the new. Secondly, BUDHA, the fon of So'MA, the first of the Lunar line who began his reign about the beginning of the Treta of the first system, or 2204, . B. C. will, by the transfer, be placed at the distance of 3027102 years, before the Christian era ;- Thirdly, in the Tre'ta' and Dwa'par of the first fystem, there were (taken together) 1200 years, during which about fifty princes in the Lunar line had reigned in succession, but the Trêta and Dwapar of the new fystem contain 3024000 years, which divided among fifty, give 60480 years to a reign ;- Fourthly, Budha, the fon of So'MA, lived towards the close of the fifth Manwantara of the fecond system, which being transferred to the new, his name will appear at two distinct periods of time, immensely distant from each other, viz. in the fifth Manwantara, and again in the Tréta Yug, of the twenty-eighth Maha Yug, of the feventh Manwantara, being an interval, at the leaft, of 426816000 years;-Fifthly, the mothers of the children of YAYA'TI (fee page 230) who lived in the fixth Manwantara of the second system, by being transferred to the fixth Manwantara in the new, are thrown back feveral millions of years before their children, and DACSHA and BHRIGU, by the same transfer, are thrown back, from their cotemporaries, many millions of years. Laftly, SWAYAMBHUVA, the ADAM of the Hindus, who, according to the fecond System lived 3878 years before CHRIST, is placed by the transfer 1972947101 years, before that epoch .- These are a few of the inconfishencies introduced by the adoption of the new fystem of BRAHMA' GUPTA, the rest may be easily conceived.

To reconcile these different absurdities, it was necessary to new model the whole of the Puránas, and to introduce such sictions and prophecies, as seemed best calculated to answer the end in view; but which

after all, only ferve to shew, in a more glaring manner, the folly of the attempt.

The enormous length of the periods in the new system, required that the life of man should be proportionably extended, which was accordingly assumed: In order to account for the same Rishis being mentioned in different periods, immensely distant from each other, they are afferted not only to have existed at all times, but to be still living. But as all men were not hishis, and as there were twenty-seven Maha Yugs from the beginning of the seventh Manwantara to the commencement of the twenty-eighth Maha Yug = 116640000 years, during which there is no shadow of history; to account for this, they therefore pretend, that at the end of every Maha Yug, or 4320000 years, the same names, persons, &c. again occur, as in the preceding period; so that by having the names &c. for one Maha Yug, or set of sour ages, we have them for all the restant

Vya's and others, as I have already noticed, lived in the eighth Manwantara of the second system of the Graha Munjari, but by the transfer of the names in that Manwantara, and in the ninch, tenth, &c. to the periods of the same names in the new-system; they would appear as yet to come; therefore, to reconcile this, all that was necessary was to convert it into a prophecy, which was accordingly adopted in the modern Puranas; so that those men who in reality are long since past and gone, appear; in these books, as if yet to come; and as many millions of ages must clapse, by the new system, before the periods of their prophessed existence can arrive, there is no great danger of detecting the falsehood of such prophecy.

military, fire, the reader will may be able to

It may however be easily conceived, that such a change in the history, by the introduction of a new system, though highly flattering to the vanity of the Hindus in general, in exalting them, at least nominally, in point of antiquity above all other nations, would naturally be opposed by many, as long as any knowledge remained of the ancient systems, therefore, the suppression of these would become necessary. Accordingly we find by a tradition still current among the learned Hindus, that the Mabárástras (Mbaratas) destroyed all the works of the ancient astronomers they could meet with; which, in some measure, may account for the desiciency we have observed in astronomical works, anterior to the time of Brahma Guppa. But if the Mbaratas did actually destroy the works of the ancient astronomers, it may be justly inferred that other works of antiquity, the subjects of which might contradict the new order of things, have also met the same fate.

FROM the foregoing view of the artificial fystems which have prevailed at different times, and of the various changes that have been made in the *Hindu* history, &c. the reader will now be able to judge for himself, and form a just opinion of the antiquity of the books the of *Hindus*, their arts and their sciences,

In the first place, it must be evident, that as the artificial system of BRAHMA' GUPTA, now called the Calpa of BRAHMA', and to which the modern Hindus have artfully transferred their history, is not yet 1300 years old, no book whatever, let its name or title be what it will, in which the monstruous periods of that system, or any allusion to them, is found, can possibly be older than the time of its invention*. And secondly, that

The author of this fystem, as well as the time in which he lived is well known to the learned, and subject to no doubt. Those who wish to see the age of the system determined from computation, may consult Vol. VI, Afiatick Researches, page 579-581.

mone of the modern Romances, commonly called the *Puranas*, at least in the form they now stand, are older than 684 years; the time when the fourteenth *Manwantara* of the second system of the *Graha Munjari* ended; but that some of them are the compilations of still later times.

We may, perhaps, be told by some person who has suffered his imagination to get the better of his judgment, that the *Hindus* sirmly believe in the prophecies in the *Puránas*, and that we have no right to doubt their authenticity, or what universal opinion sanctions as true.

WITH respect to the firm belief or universal opinion of the Hindur, we know too well the fallacy of it, and that it is not in the smallest degree to be relied on. We know that it is the universal opinion of the Hindur, that Para'sara, Vya's, Garga and others, lived near 5000 years ago. But we know, to a certainty, from the positions of the colures in the time of Para'sara, &c. that such opinion is totally false, and that it arose from the transfer of the names of men living in the Dwapar Yug of the first system of the Graba Munjari, to the period of the same name in the modern system of Brahma Gupta; and that a similar transfer of the names in the eighth, ninth, tenth, &c. Manwantaras of the second system, to the periods of the same name in the new, gave rise to the pretended prophetic essusion in the modern Puranas, &c.

Moreover, we know, that it is the general opinion of the Hindus that Varaha Mihira not only lived about the year A. D. 499, but also at the era of Vicrama ditya, or fifty-six years before Christ; which opinion we know to be inconsistent with truth and contrary to the course of nature. Varaha Mihira, in his rule for calculating the precession of the equinoxes, given in his work entitled the Jatacárnava, says,—

शाकमेकाद्वि वेदोनं द्विः कृत्वा दशभिहं रेत्। लवुं हीनंच तचैव अयनंशि कलाः स्मृताः ॥

THAT is "From the year of Saca take 421:—having put the remainder down in two places, let one of them be divided by ten, and the quotient taken from the other, the residue is the precession in minutes."

Hence many of the Hindus have, erroneously, concluded that VARA'HA MIHIRA must have lived in the year 421 of Saca, or A. D. 499. But furely there is not the smallest foundation to draw any such inference from the passage, for, he might have lived at the present time and given the same rule. In fact, it might, with equal propriety, be pretended that he lived at the beginning of the Cali Yug, because he assumed the planets to have been in a line of mean conjunction in the first point of Aries at that time. Not satisfied, however, with thus stretching a point in favor of the antiquity of their author, they go something farther, and endeavour from the following verse of the Navaratna, which they generally quote, to refer him to the era of Vicrama'ditya, sifty-six years before Christ, or upwards of 500 years still earlier than the former.

भवति द्वपणकामरसिंह शंक वेतालभट बटकप्र कालिदासाः । खातो वराहमिहिरो नृपते सभाया रह्मानिवै वर्हिच नंव विक्रमस्य ॥

THAT IS, "DHANVANTARI, CSHAPANACA, AMARAS'INHA, S'ANCU, BE'TA'LABHATTA, GHATACARPU'RA, CA'LIDA'S, the celebrated Va-RA'HA MIHIRA and BARARUCHI, were the nine gems in the council of Raja Vicrama."

Upon shewing the above verse to an intelligent pandit, he smiled and faid with a degree of candour I did not expect, that the inference, with respect to time, usually drawn from it, was not just; for that there had been feveral princes of the name of VICRAMA OF VICRAMA DITYA. That, exclusive of the one from whom the epoch is reckoned, there was another in the time of SALVAHAN; a third who had succeeded Raja BHOTA; and a fourth lineally descended from the latter, now living at a place called Bhojpoor beyond Patna:-that, beside these, there were many others, who had forung up at different periods in the fame family, but that the particular prince in whose time VARAHA MIHIRA and the others above named, flourished, was the immediate successor of Ruja BHOJA. For, that they were first in the council of Rajah Buoja, and afterwards in that of VICRAMADITYA his successor. This simple explanation of the pandit, was a compleat folution of the mystery on which the pretended antiquity of the works of VARAHA, AMARASINHA, CALIDA'S, BARARUCHI, &c. were founded, and which led many into an error that they were written before the Christian era, though in reality little more than seven hundred years old.

RAJA BHOJA, according to the Ayeen Akbery, began his reign about the year 1153 of Salvahan.— This however must be incorrect, for it seems, that according to Hindu accounts and others, he began his reign about 210 years, before the death of Raja Pithaura, who sell in battle with the Makomedans, A. H. 588, or A. D. 1192. And as Raja Bhoja, is said to have reigned 100 years, he must consequently have ascended the throne A. D. 982, and died A. D. 1082: which agrees exactly with the time in which we know Varaha Mihira must have flourished, according to the positions of the planets &c. given by him in his works, as well as from the date of the Bhásvati, composed in A. D. 1099 by one

of his pupils. Raja Bhoja according to the Agni Purana, was succeeded by Raja Vickama.

BARARUCHI, one of the nine abovementioned, was the author of a popular Work, entitled Sinbáfana dwátrinsati relating to Raja Bhoja. The names of Ca'lida's, Bararuchi, &c. are to be met with in the Bhoja Champu as also in the Bhoja Prabandha, from which last mentioned work the following passage is taken:—

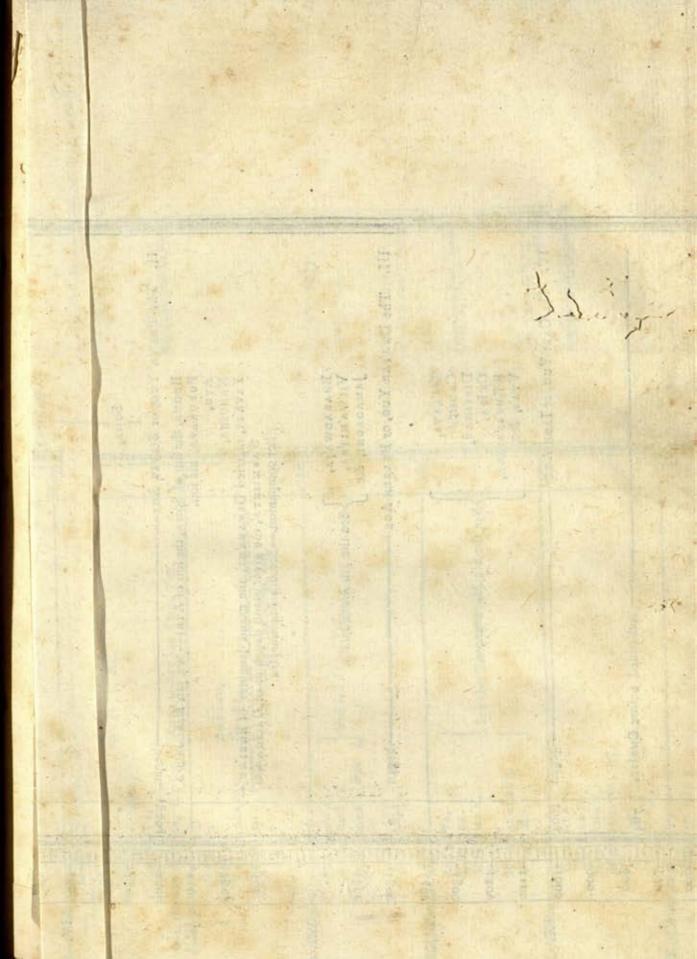
तंबी झाते द्विजा उचुः । कालिदास अस्माकं समगु वेदविदां भोजः किमापि नार्पयति ॥

THE Brabmens feeing him (i. e. Ca'LIDA's) faid—O CA'LIDA's, Bhoja does not give us, who are learned in all the Védas, any thing."

Several other passages might be quoted from the Bhoja Prabandha, to shew that Calida's, Bararuchi, and a great many other learned men whose names are therein mentioned, lived at the court of Bhoja. The Bhoja Prabandha, is said to have been written by Raja Bulla'la Se'na.

We may now plainly perceive, from the whole of the above facts, the little dependence there is to be placed on what is usually called the universal or general opinion of the *Hindus*; which when thoroughly fifted and examined to the bottom, proves at last to be founded, principally, in vanity, ignorance and credulity.

A GREAT deal more might be faid, respecting the history and astronomy of the Hindus; but having already extended this paper, to a much greater length than I originally intended, I shall now take leave of the subject.



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VII.

An ESSAY on the SACRED ISLES in the West, with other Essays connected with that Work.

BY CAPTAIN F. WILFORD.

INTRODUCTION.

A T the moment of appearing before the tribunal of the Afiatick Society, and of the public, it would be in vain to attempt to conceal my emotion and anxiety. On the merit of the composition alone, I am conscious their judgment must rest: and this conviction agitates me with doubt and apprehension.

I have omitted no endeavour to render this work as free from imperfections as my abilities would allow; but the subject is so novel, and the source of information so remote from the learned in Europe, that I must confess I feel no small degree of uneasiness on that account. Fortunately for me, the Society, to which I have the honor of presenting my work, will stand between me and the public, for it is in the power of every member, whether conversant with the Sanscrit language or not, to ascertain the genuineness of all the authorities cited by me; the books, from which I have drawn my information, being by no means rare, nor difficult to be procured.

THE grand outlines and principal features of this effay are also well

known to pandits and learned men in India. A few paffiges, anecdotes, and circumstances may be, perhaps, unknown to many of them: but these are perfectly immaterial; and, whether allowed to remain or not, neither my foundation, nor superstructure can be affected.

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THE Sacred Isles in the West, of which Sweta-duspa, or the White-Island, is the principal, and the most famous, are in fact the holy land of the Hindus. There the fundamental and mysterious transactions of the history of their religion, in its rise and progress, took place. The White-Island, this holy land in the West, is so intimately connected with their religion and mythology, that they cannot be separated: and of course divines in India, are necessarily acquainted with it, as distant Muslemans with Arabia.

This I conceive to be a most favourable circumstance; as, in the present case, the learned have little more to do, than to ascertain whether the White Island be England, and the Sacred Isles of the Hindus, the British Isles. After having maturely considered the subject, I think they are. My reasons for this opinion are given in the present work, and I submit them with all due deference to the learned, declaring publicly, that I have, to the best of my knowledge, fairly stated the case, and that I have not designedly omitted any passage that might induce a different conclusion. At the same time I desire them to believe, that I do not mean to write dogmatically, even when I seem to make a positive assertion, and that I never entertained an idea, that my conviction should preclude the full exercise of their judgment.

Should the learned, after a due investigation of the subject and of the proofs I have adduced in support of my opinion, dissent from it, and

assign another situation for the White Island, and the Sacred Isles, I have not the least objection to it: for, admitting my position to be right, I am conscious that Britain cannot receive any additional lustre from it. Indeed I had originally supposed Crete to be meant, and it was not without some reluctance, that I gave up the first impression, originating from no unspecious reasons, which however yielded to more solid proofs.

THE difficulties I have experienced in bringing forward this work, were numerous. Some originated from the nature of the work itself, and of the fources from which I drew my information, whilst others were of a most perplexing and distressing nature in themselves.

My original design was to have published my essay on the Sacred Isles by itself; and this several years ago when it was ready for the press. But in that detached state, if I may be allowed the expression, unconnected with the geography of the country, from which I drew my information respecting them, and unaccompanied with the general system of geography of the Hindus, it would have appeared to great disadvantage. Beside it was far from being so complete as it now is, for I have since found many valuable and interesting materials, which have enabled me to form a more adequate idea of the subject.

A FORTUNATE, but at the same time a most distressful discovery contributed to delay its publication. Though I never entertained the least doubt concerning the genuineness of my vouchers (having cursorily collated them with the originals a little before I had completed my essay), yet when I reslected how cautious an author ought to be, and how easily mistakes will take place, I resolved once more to make a general collation of my vouchers with the originals, before my essay went out of my

hands. This, I conceived, was a duty which I owed, not only to the public, but to my own character.

In going on with the collation I foon preceived, that whenever the word S'wetam or S'weta-dwipa the name of the principal of the Sacred Isles, and also of the whole cluster was introduced, the writing was fomewhat different, and that the paper was of a different colour, as if flained. Surprifed at this strange appearance, I held the page to the light,' and perceived immediately that there was an erafure, and that fome fize had been applied. Even the former word was not fo much defaced. but that I could fometimes make it out plainly. I was thunderstruck. but felt some consolation, in knowing that still my manuscript was in my own possession. I recollected my essay on Egypt, and instantly referred to the originals which I had quoted in it, my fears were but too foon realised, the same deception, the same erasures appeared to have pervaded them. I shall not trouble the Society with a description of what I felt, and of my distress at this discovery. My first step was to inform my friends of it, either verbally, or by letters, that I might fecure, at least, the credit of the first disclosure.

When I reflected, that the discovery might have been made by others, either before or after my death, that in one case my situation would have been truly distressful; and that in the other my name would have passed with infamy to posterity, and increased the calendar of imposture, it brought on such paroxisms as threatened the most serious consequences, in my then infirm state of health. I formed at first the resolution to give up entirely my researches and pursuits, and to inform Government and the public of my missortune. But my friends disfuaded me from taking any hasty step; and advised me to ascertain,

whether the deception had pervaded the whole of the authorities cited by me, or some parts only. I followed their advice, and having resumed the collation of my vouchers with unexceptionable manuscripts, I sound that the impositions were not so extensive, as I had apprehended.

THE nature of my enquiries and pursuits was originally the source of this missortune. Had they been confined to some particular object to be found within the limits of a sew books, as astronomy, it could never have taken place: but the case was very different. The geography, history and mythology of the Hindus are blended together, and dispersed through a vast number of voluminous books, in which prevails a most disgusting confusion and verbosity. Besides, the titles of their books have seldom any affinity with the contents, and I have often sound most valuable materials in treatises, the professed subject of which was of the most unpromising nature.

Thus when I began to study the Sanscrit language, I was obliged to wade with difficulty through ponderous volumes, generally without finding any thing valuable enough to reward me for my trouble. But in the course of conversation, my pandit and other learned natives, often mentioned most interesting legends bearing an association affinity with those of the western mythologists.

I CONSEQUENTLY directed my pandit to make extracts from all the Puranas and other books relative to my enquiries, and to arrange them under proper heads. I gave him a proper establishment of assistants and writers, and I requested him to procure another pandit to assist me in my studies; and I obtained for his further encouragement for him a place in the college at Benares. At the same time, I amused my self with un-

folding to him our ancient mythology, history and geography. This was absolutely necessary as a clue to guide him through so immense an undertaking, and I had full confidence in him. His manners were blunt and rough, and his arguing with me on several religious points with coolness, and steadiness, a thing very uncommon among natives (who on occasions of this kind, are apt to recede, or seem to coincide in opinion) raised him in my esteem. I affected to consider him as my Guru, or spiritual teacher; and, at certain festivals, in return for his discoveries and communications, handsome presents were made to him and his family.

The extracts, which I thus received from him, I continued to translate by way of exercise, till in a sew years this collection became very voluminous. At our commencement, I enjoined him to be particularly cautious in his extracts and quotations, and informed him that, if I should, at a future period, determine to publish any thing, the strictest scrutiny would take place in the collation. He seemed to acquiesce fully in this, and we went on without any suspicion on my part, until Sir William Jones, strongly recommended to me to publish some of my discoveries, particularly respecting Egypt. I collected immediately all my vouchers relating to that country, carefully revised my translations, selected the best passages, compared them with all the fragments I could find among our ancient authors, and framed the whole into an essay. I then informed my pandit that, previously to my sending it to Sir W. Jones, a most scrupulous collation of the vouchers with the original manuscript from which they were extracted would take place.

To this, without the least alteration in his countenance, nay, with the greatest chearfulness, he affented; and as several months intervened, he

had time to prepare himself: so that when the collation took place, I saw no ground to discredit his extracts, and was satisfied.

I have since learned that, as the money for his establishment passed through his hands, his avaricious disposition led him to embezzle the whole, and to attempt to perform the task alone, which was impracticable. In order to avoid the trouble of consulting books, he conceived the idea of framing legends from what he recollected from the Purasias, and from what he had picked up in conversation with me. As he was exceedingly well read in the Purasias, and other similar books, in consequence of his situation with a Marbatta chief of the first rank in his younger days, it was an easy task for him; and he studied to introduce as much truth as he could, to obviate the danger of immediate detection.

Many of the legends were very correct, except in the name of the country, which he generally altered into that of either Egypt, or Swétam.

His forgeries were of three kinds; in the first, there was only a word or two altered. In the second, were such legends, as had undergone a more material alteration; and in the third, all those which he had written from memory.

WITH regard to those of the first class, when he found that I was resolved to make a collation of the manuscript, he began to adulterate and disfigure his own manuscript, mine, and the manuscripts of the college, by erasing the original name of the country, and putting that of Egypt or of Swetam in its place.

To prevent my detecting those of the second class, which were not

in *India* are not bound as in *Europe*, and every leaf is loofe, he took out one or two leaves, and fubstituted others with an adulterous legend. In books of some antiquity it is not uncommon to see a sew new leaves inserted in the room of others that were wanting.

To conceal his impositions of the third class, which is the most numerous, he had the patience to write two voluminous sections, supposed to belong, one to the Scanda-purana and the other to the Brahmanda, in which he connected all the legends together, in the usual style of the Puranas. These two sections, as he wrote them, consist of no less than 12,000 Slocas or lines, the title of which he borrowed. The real sections, are so very scarce, that they are generally supposed to be lost and probably are so; unless they are to be found in the library of the Rajah of Jayanagar. Other impostors have had recourse to the Scanda, Brahmanda, and Padma-puranas, a great part of which is not at present to be found, and for that reason, these are called the Puranas of thieves or impostors: though the genuineness of such parts, as are in common use, has never been questioned.

Some persons attempted by such means, to deceive the samous JAYA= SINHA, and the late TICAT-RAYA, prime minister of the Nabob of Oude. They were discovered, lost their places and appointments, and were disgraced.

My chief pandit certainly had no idea, in the first instance, that he should be driven to such extremities. I used (as already remarked) to translate the extracts which he made for me, by way of exercise; and never thought at that time, of comparing them with the originals: first, because I had no

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reason to doubt their authenticity; and secondly, because it would have been soon enough to make the collation, when I had determined upon publishing any part of them.

This apparently lulled him into fecurity, but, being afterwards fenfible of the danger of his detection, he was induced to attempt the most
daring falssification of the originals, in order, if possible, to extricate himfelf. When discovered, he slew into the most violent paroxisms of rage,
calling down the vengeance of heaven, with the most horrid and tremendous imprecations upon himself and his children, if the extracts were not
true. He brought ten Brabmens, not only as compurgators, but also to
swear, by what is most facred in their religion, to the genuineness of these
extracts: after giving them a severe reprimand, for this prostitution of
their facerdotal character, I, of course refused to allow them to proceed.

AND here I shall close the recital of what relates personally to a man, whose course of imposition I have deemed incumbent on me to lay before the public. He came to me in distress, but with a fair reputation; he is now in assume, but with a character, infamous for ingratitude, and fraud, and deceit. His voluminous extracts are still of great use to me, because they always contain much truth, and the learned therefore have not been missed in their general conclusions from my essay on Egypt; though it would be dangerous for any one, to use detached passages, and apply them to any particular purpose. In the course of my present work, I have collected carefully what I could find in India, concerning Ethiopia and Egypt.

A FEW instances of the impositions of my pandit will exemplify his mode of proceeding. The first is a legend of the greatest importance, and

and his three sons, and is written in a masterly style. But unfortunately there is not a word of it to be found in that Puraña. It is however mentioned, though in less explicit terms, in many Purañas, and the pandit took particular care in pointing out to me several passages, which consirmed more or less this interesting legend. Of these I took little notice, as his extract appeared more explicit and satisfactory, and I do not now recollect in what Purañas, or other books they are contained. It is acknowledged, that the three sons of Swayambhuva are incarnations of the Trimurt; and they are declared, in general, in the Purañas, to have been created by the Deity to marry the three daughters of the first man, with a view to avoid the desilement of human conception, gestation and birth.

DACSHA and BRAHMA' in a human shape; CARDDAMA, or CAPILA, or CABIL, (the name of CAIN among Muslemans), was S'IVA; and the benevolent Ruchi, was Vishnu: one of Ruchi's titles is S'ARMA and S'AMA; S'IVA is called HA and HAM in the objective case; and BRAHMA', or DACSHA, is declared to be PRAJA'PATI, nearly synonymous with JYA'PATI.

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In the Mabá-Bhárata, fection of the Adipurva, there is a much more positive passage. D'HARMA, or the first man, sprang from the right side of BRAHMA, which was cut open for that purpose: to him were born three sons; S'AMA, CAMA and HARSHA.

THE rest of the legend, about the intoxication of NOAH, is from what my pandit picked up in conversation with me.

QNE of the fons of NOAH is called ILA-PATI, fynonymous with JYAPATI, the lord of the earth, the same with PRAJAPATI, or the lord of mankind. Indeed the denomination of Prajapati is originally no more, than Japati with the upfarga, or indeclinable particle pra, used intenfively. Jab is the principle of life in a living being; hence a man is called Pra-ja, from his superiority above the rest of the animal creation. Besides it is very common in India to prefix the particle pra to proper names of holy men, and more particularly fo among the Baudd'bists. Thus they say Pra-Swana, the venerable SWANA. Pra-áryya-sira the venerable fire of the Aryyas, Pra-Iswara, &c. In the same manner, PRAJA PATI fignifies the venerable JA PATI the chief of the animated creation. This will not feem in the least furprising, when we restect that the Hindus never admit of any legend without disfiguring it fo, as to make it their own. Besides we see the enmity between BRAHMA' and SIVA, remaining still in their human shapes: for CARDDAMES WARA killed his brother DACSHA.

It is acknowledged both by Hindus and the western mythologists, that at every renovation of the world, the same events take place, the same heroes reappear upon the scene: and of course S'AMA, CAMA, HARSHA, or PRA-JA'PATI are born again to every MENU.

ILA or ILA', called also IDA', and IRA', was the son of NOAH: and ILA'-PATI is synonymous with JYA'PATI, and implicitly so with JA'PATI. This ILA is called ILYS in the theogony of ORPHEUS; and GHILSHAH in Persian romances, which literally answers to ILA'-PATI. He is perhaps the same with the eldest ILUS of HOMER.

THE next legend is that of SEMIRAMIS, which the pandit has most share-

fully disfigured. She is well known in *India* under the name of SAMEL-DEVI, and the is the goddess of the element of fire, so inimical to the vegetable kingdom, the St'bdwaras, or immoveable beings; and of course, to their chief VISHNU in the character of the Aswatt'ba tree, which is declared to be the first, the chief of trees, and of course St'bawarpati en Stawrobates.

S'AMI and the Afwatt'ba tree have each two countenances, one is that of a tree of the same name, the other is that of a human being. In this, which is their original character, S'AMI is the name with URVASI, who married PURURAVA, the grandson of NOAH, exactly in the same degree of descent with the sounder of Ninive. The same is called also AILA in the Puranas, and LAILAN-SHAH by Persian romancers, NINUS by the Greeks, and in the Tamuli dialect he is also called NILAN. Their amours and their quarrels, and ultimately their reconciliation are the subject of a beautiful drama. Her charms certainly affected the conquest of LAILAN'S heart: they quarrelled, and she disappeared in a most wonderful manner: but LAILAN, with powerful spells, forced her back. Semiral-MIS sirst conquered STAUROBATES, but was conquered by him at last.

S'AMI' and PURURAVA were changed into two trees, without losing their human countenances, the S'AMI' and the ASWATT'HA, the ST'HA'WARA-PATI, and S'AMI'-DEVI' remains dallying in the tree of the same name; hence she is really S'AMI'-RAMA', though that denomination be never used.

HER history is to be found in the GAN'ES'A, VISHNU, and Bha'gaver Puran'as, and also in the Maha' Bha'rata, but it is incomplete in each them; and the whole must be brought together and compared with the account given of her in the above Nataca, or dramatic poem.

Ir is my intention to refume her history in the course of this work, and in the mean time I shall observe, that she was born at Tibotra (or Tri-botra) to the west of Debli; acknowledged to be the same place, which is now called Tebora or Tebaura, and Tebara in the Peutingerian tables, near the river Sutluj: Tihotra is also supposed to be the same with Tri-garta, a place often mentioned in Hindu books.

THAT goddess was the daughter of Aurvasa, who presides over the elementary fire, and is most inimical to the St'howars, and their lord and pati of course.

The flory of the two doves, mentioned in my essay on Samiramis, is unknown to the Pauranies; but there are some legends about them in the western parts of India, where they apply them to, or perhaps framed them, in consequence of the two doves found by Mohammed in the Caaba at Mecca; which they claim, with some reason, as a place of worship belonging originally to the Hindus.

THE misfortune which befel Mana-deva is well known: but the discerption of the sacred Linga, is represented in the Puranas in a different light. It was divided into twelve parts, besides many splinters. These twelve Lingas preside over the twelve months of the year. I was concerned for a long time, that I could not discover the least vestiges of the legends concerning Perseus, Andromeda, and Pegasus, nor even the names of the principal characters: but these I have lately found in the Yantra-raja and other books, with a most ample account of the thir-

sy-fix Decani, fo famous in Egyptian astronomy, and called Drefein in Sanscrit.

PERSEUS is called there PRETAS'IRA, or the man with the Larva's head, and the fame fituation is affigned to him in the heavens. He is also called S'AILA-MUC'HA (or having a stony face or head) alluding to the head of MEDUSA, which turned the beholders into stone. PEGASUS is also mentioned there under the name of SAMUDRA-PACSHI, or the bird of the ocean. He is likewise called SAMU'DRA-PADA, because his hindparts and feet are concealed in the ocean. The leffer horfe is called Hayagriva: but the legends of all these are still wanting, except the last, which will appear in the courfe of this work. AndROMEDA is called VEJARA, and is represented with her head shaven, and her hands bound in setters. Cassiope a is called LEBANA', and CEPHEUS NRIPA or NRI-RUPA, and Persian authors say, he is the fame with CAI+CAOUS. He is flightly mentioned in other Hindu books as a great king. He was the father of the CEPHENES, and Cephifene was their native country; in Sanfcrit Capisayana. CAPES'A is CEPHEUS, and Cápisa is the patronymic appellation of his descendants, called also Siblucas.

My essays on the chronology of the Hindus and mount Caucasus are almost entirely free from the forgeries which I have stated, because my chief pandit had little to do with them. I recollect only three instances in which he interfered; and in them the legends were, as usual, dissignized by him. They are legends respecting Prometheus and the Eagle; with some particulars relating to Bámíyan and the Lipari islands. Garuda's den is well known to this day, to pilgrims, and the Hindus of these parts. The place is called Shibr in Major Rennell's maps, for Shabar: and it is not far from Bámíyan. There Garuda used to devour all the Shabaras who

paned by, and in the Puránas, all favage tribes are thus called. Amongst others were some servants of Maha'-deva whom he devoured; this drew upon him the resentment of that irascible deity, whose servants are called Pramat'bas: hence probably the ground work of the sable of Prometheus and the Eagle. All the rest is an improvement, from what the Pandit gathered out of our conversations on the subject of ancient mythology. His account of Bamiyan from the Budd'ba-dharma-charitra must be rejected till its genuineness be ascertained. There is such a book at Benares, but all my endeavours to procure it have been fruitless. In this legend he has certainly adopted admirably the manner, style, and notions of the followers of Budd'ha, and the idiom of the language of their books. I have seen the original legend from which he framed his own, about the islands of Lipari, but it has not the least relation to these islands, and beatongs to some place in the mountains to the north of India.

In like manner many of the legends cited in my effay on Egypt, though they have a striking affinity with those of that country, are not expressly faid to belong either to that, or to any particular country, being related in general terms. In these cases, my Pandit inserted the name of Egypt, and if the name of any other country was mentioned, he erased it, and put that of Egypt in its place. Yet the similarity between these legends, and many more which are quoted in the course of this work, and the authenticity of which may be depended upon with those of the Egyptians and other mythologists is so striking, as to evince their original identity: for so near a coincidence, in my humble opinion, could not have been merely accidental. It evinces also some remote communication at least, if not some affinity, at an early period, between the nations among which we find these legends equally current.

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In the Hindu books we read of some princes, who raised mountains of gold, silver, and precious stones; some three; others only one; but whether this be applicable to Egypt does not appear, rather the contrary. It was however a practice formerly, and, if restricted to a single pyramid, it was intended for the mountain of God, the holy mount Meru. If three pyramids were constructed, they were intended to represent the three peaks of Meru. There is a beautiful pyramid at Sarnáth near Benares, built by a king of Gaur, or Bengal. It is conical, and of earth, with a coating of bricks, and is about seventy seet high. In the inscription found there some years ago, it is declared to be intended as a representation of Meru, which is represented of a conical figure by the Hindus, but like a square pyramid by the followers of Budd's. The tower, or pyramid of Babel, was of a square form, with seven stages or steps like Meru.

The recession of the sea from the valley of Egypt is no where mentioned: but the same miracle is recorded as performed by several holy men, particularly on the western shores of India. Indeed whenever the Hinda writers treat of the accession of lands, which were formerly occupied by the sea, they never fail to attribute it to the prayers of some holy perfonage.

In the course of my correspondence with the venerable Sir William Jones, the Institutor and first President of the Asiatick Society, and my patron in Oriental literature, I mentioned the discoveries, which I thought I had made, and particularly respecting Ethiopia and Egypt. He expressed his surprise; but could not be brought to believe an early, or even any communication whatsoever, between the inhabitants of those countries and the Hindus. As I was just entering upon my studies, and literary enquiries at that time, he wrote me candidly that he was afraid I had been missed by enthusiasm, and cautioned me not to trust to the verbal accounts.

of the Brabmens: but requested that I would, for his satisfaction, send to him the necessary written documents from the Puranas. I complied with his request most chearfully; and sent him all my vouchers as correct as pessible. After perusing them, he wrote to me nearly in the following words, the purport of which I recollect persectly, but lament that his letter being missaid, I cannot produce it.

"HAVING read the numerous passages you adduce in support of your affertions, in their original language, in the extracts you have sent me, both alone and with a pandit, I am fully satisfied that there existed an early communication between the Hindus, and the inhabitants of Ethiopia and Egypt."

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HE then informed me that, his collection of the Puranas being incomplete, he had not been able to compare all the extracts which I had fent to him concerning Ethiopia and Egypt, but that he had found feveral of the most effential, such as the legends about NAIRRIT and the PALLI, and that he could bear testimony to their general accuracy. Besides, NATR-RIT and his being appointed guardian of the fouth-west quarter of the old continent being well known to learned pandits, they had pointed out to him several passages in other Puranas and Sanscrit books; relating to NATERIT, S'ANC'HA-DWI'PA, &cc. fo that he was fully convinced of their genuineness and antiquity, and as for the others of less importance, he did not entertain the least doubt about their being equally genuine. He added, that learned pandits were, besides, well acquainted with the general outlines of most of the other legends I had produced; and concluded by faying, that he intended to make fome remarks on my effay on Egypt, in which he would express his conviction in those teven blue in L. something. termss



In the remarks, which Sir William Jones did afterward subjoined my essay, and which were published with it in the third volume of the transactions of the Asiatick Society, he could not have intended a stronger public testimonial, than that which he had communicated to me privately. But as the terms of one passage, relative to the Sanscrit papers, which I transmitted to him, as taken from the Purassas and other books, might be understood to imply a more general collation of my extracts with the original works, then had taken place, or could have been meant, I have thought it incumbent on me to add the preceding explanation of the real circumstances.

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I SHALL ever lament that I was the cause, of Sir WILLIAM JONES being thus missed like myself. I have shewn that I was exposed to imposition, first, from the nature of my literary pursuits, and in the second place, from the considence which I reposed in the integrity of my native assistants, and more particularly my chief pandit. This no longer exists, and of course no similar deception can now take place. If a word or a passage of importance in any manuscript bears the least mark of adulteration, it must be given up, unless corroborated by collating it with other books, which are totally free from suspicion.

I HAVE prepared two copies of my vouchers, one for the Asiatick Society, and the other for the College of Fort William. I have already presented one to Mr. Colebrooke; and I take this opportunity to acknowledge the friendly assistance I have always received from that gentleman, and his ready communication of every fort of information, that could be of use to me, through the whole course of my literary pursuits, and for which I return most gratefully my most sincere and hearty thanks: and I candidly acknowledge that, without his assistance, I should never have been able

to bring to a conclusion, in a manner satisfactory to myself, the present work, which, from its nature, and that of the materials, is attended with difficulties of which sew people unacquainted with the subject can form any idea.

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With regard to the British Isles, I soon sound that the grand outlines were perfectly correct; even more so, than those of my essay on Egypt and Ethiopia, which countries are very little known to the learned, and of which little is recorded in the Puranas, when compared to their holy land. My pandit had filled up the rest with a vast number of legends of all forts, but most of them of little importance, and affording very little light on the subject.

THE White Island in the West is the holy land of the Hindus. It is of course a fort of fairy land, which, as might be expected from their well known disposition, they have not failed to store with wonderful mountains, places of worship and holy streams. It would be highly imprudent to attempt to ascertain their present names and situation; though I have occasionally broken through this rule, and may have been seduced, by a strange similarity of names and other circumstances, within the fascinating attraction of conjectural etymology.

SHOULD the learned reject this, not deeming the presumptive proofs strong enough, I beg their indulgence in the sew cases of this description, which certainly cannot mislead them. It is seldom the lot of authors to write without some enthusiasm, a portion of which may perhaps be necessary. I have faithfully collected whatever I could find in the Purasias and other Hindu books, relating to this holy land, whether bearing some marks of truth, or obviously siclitious; and I solemnly declare that I

have not the desire, either to defend or impugn the notions of the Kindal, as I conceive them, in regard to these Sacred Isles.

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IT would have been doing injustice to the subject, to have attempted to give an account of these Islands without the geographical system of the Hindus, who believe them, and consider them as a terrestrial paradise.

I HAVE therefore premised an ample, but still incomplete system of geography, according to the followers of BRAHMA and BUDD'HA.

religion while countries are very little known to the learned, and of

I HAVE added an effay on the chronology of the Hindus and the emperors of India; with geographical, mythological and historical sketches of the intermediate countries from India to the British Isles, inclusively, It will appear in the course of this work, that the language of the followers of BRAHMA' their geographical knowledge, their history and mythology, have extended through a range or belt about forty degrees broad, across the old continent, in a South-East and North-West direction, from the Eastern shores of the Maláya peninsula to the Western extremity of the British Isles,

Through this immense range, the same original religious notions reappear in various places, under various modifications, as might be expected, and there is not a greater difference between the tenets and worship of the Hindus and Greeks, than exists between those of the churches of Rome and Geneva. With regard to the languages, both ancient and modern, through this belt, their radical words, verbs and nouns, with others regularly deduced from them, are in great measure Sanscrit. It cannot be expected that their respective grame

mars should preferve much affinity. It is the fate of every language, when in a state of decay, to lose gradually its cases, moods, and tenses of the second order, and to employ auxiliary verbs, which the Sanscrit uses sparingly, and by no means through necessity. I have obferved that gradual state of decay in the Sanscrit language, through the dialects in use in the Eastern parts of India down to the lowest, in which last, though all the words are Sanscrit more or less corrupted. the grammatical part is poor and deficient, exactly like that of our modern languages in Europe, whilst that of the higher dialects of that country is at least equal to that of the Latin language. From such state of degradation no language can recover itself: all the refinements of civilization and learning will never retrieve the use of a lost case or The improvements confift only in borrowing words from other languages, and in framing new ones occasionally. This is the remark of an eminent modern writer, and experience shows that he is perfectly right. Even the Sanscrit alphabet, when stripped of its double letters, and of those peculiar to that language, is the Pelasgic, and every letter is to be found in that, or the other ancient alphabets which obtained formerly all over Europe, and I am now preparing a short essay on that interesting subject.

The principal object I have in view in this essay is to prove that the Sacred Isles of the Hindus, if not the British Isles, are at least some remote country to the North-west of the old continent; for I cannot conceive that they are altogether Utopian or imaginary. But a secondary one also is to prove that the greatest part of the legends, which formerly obtained all over the Western parts of the world, from India to the British Isles, were originally the same with those found in the mythology of the

Hindus. Besides these, they had also in every country local notions and legends, as well as local Deities, and which of course were peculiar to them.

THE principal effay on the Sacred Isles in the West will appear, with the permission of the Asiatick Society, in a future volume of their Refearches; and it is proposed to publish the series of essays mentioned with that work in the following order.

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Essay I.	On the geographical fystems of the Hindus.
	Geographical and historical sketches on Anu-Gangam, or
evodio circo	the Gangetic provinces.
	II. Chronology of the kings of Magadha, emperors of India.
F	V. On VICRAMA'DITYA and S'A'LIVA'HANA, with their
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	7. The rife, progress and decline of the Christian religion in
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PART THE FIRST.

CHAPTER THE FIRST.

OF THE GEOGRAPHICAL SYSTEMS OF THE HINDUS.

SECTION I.

GENERAL IDEAS OF THESE SYSTEMS.

THE Hindus have no name, either for geography or geometry, but we are not to infer thence, that they have entirely neglected these two sciences. They are certainly pretty well acquainted with geometry, but they consider it, and with some reason, as part of the science of numbers; and neither can our denomination of geometry, which signifies surveying, be considered as a very apposite term. In the time of the samous JAYA-SINHA, Raja of Jayapur, the learned at his court gave it the name of Cshetra-dersana, or the inspection and knowledge of sigures; and a treatise on geometry composed by his command, is still called by that name. These elements begin with an inquiry into the properties of lines simply combined together, which combination is called acshetra, or informous. They then proceed to the consideration of regular sigures or cshetra, as a triangle, a square, cube, &c. whilst an angle is called acshetra, or informous.

THE Hindus give various names to geographical tracts, such as Bhuvana-Cosa, or treasure of terrestrial mansions; Chetra-Samasa, or combination of countries; Bbuvana-Sagara, or ocean of mansions, or habitable places. Such a geographical treatife is cited by Signor BAYER, under the corrupted appellation of Purvana-Saccaram. Another treatife in my possession is called Trailbeya-darpaña, and was given to me by the late Mr. REUBEN BUR-ROW, who procured it near Hardwar. Its name fignifies the mirror of the three worlds, meaning heaven, earth, and hell, and answers exactly to the treatife ascribed to Saint PATRICK, and called Differtatio de Tribus = Locis, or babitaculis. It was written fome hundred years ago, and the copy I have is of the year 1718 of VICRAMA DITYA. In feveral Puranas, there is a fection expressly on the subject of geography, and for that reason called Bhuvana-Cosa. It is also denominated Bhu-c'handa, or section of the earth. Except the sections contained in the Puranas, geographical tracts are in general written in the spoken dialects, and are extremely fcarce, as they are discountenanced by the facerdotal class, as are historical books. This they have often acknowledged to me, faying, they have the Puranas; what do they want more? Besides, as they are written in the vulgar dialects, they are the works of persons not sufficiently learned and informed, and very apt, as I am told, to hazard occasionally a few heretical notions. They are not, however, so strict in the Dekbin, and the Western parts of India: there, I am credibly informed, they have treatifes expressly on the subject both of history and geography.

THERE are two geographical tracts in Sanscrit: the first, called Vicramapratidesa vyavast'bá, is attributed to Vicramapratidesa vyavast'bá, is attributed to Vicramathat name, who lived, as we shall see hereafter, in the fifth century, and
it is said to consist of eighteen, or twenty thousand slócas or lines: the
second, called Munja-pratidesa-vyavast'bá, is attributed to king Munja, the
uncle of the samous Bho'ja, who lived in the latter end of the tenth century.

It is nearly the same with the former, including some amendments and

additions. These two geographical treatises cannot but be curious and interesting, but unfortunately, they are not to be found in this part of India. They are however pretty common in the Western parts of it, and particularly so in Gurjarát, where they have been seen by several respectable pandits of that country. The Trai-Lócya-darpaña, which I mentioned before, is according to the system of the followers of Budd'ha, and is written in an uncouth dialect of the inland parts of India, with a strange mixture of Sanscrit words and phrases.

The Cshetra-Samása is another geographical tract by the Jainas, which I lately procured. It is written in Pracrit, afferted by some to be the same with the Báli or Mágad'hi dialect, but probably somewhat different from that used in the Burman empire, Siam and Ceylon. The Báli or Mágad'hi, was the language used at the court of the emperors of India, kings of Magad'ha or Bahar, and called also Bali-putras, because they were descended from the samous Balt, or Nanda; and their kingdom is denominated after them Poli by the Chinese. This last is accompanied by a copious commentary, with several fanciful delineations of the world, and of mount Méru.

WITH regard to history, the Hindus really have nothing but romances, from which some truths occasionally may be extracted, as well as from their geographical tracts. Those in Sanscrit are the Charitras, or actions of Vicrama'ditya, of king Bho'ja, and others.

THE Vribat-Car'ba is a collection of historical anecdotes, fometimes very interesting, and consists of 22,000 socas:

In the spoken dialects, there is the romance of PRITHU-RAYA, containing an account of his wars with Sultan GHORI; part of it is in my posfession. It is exactly in the style of our old romances in Europe, with nearly the same proportion of historical truth.

In several of the Puranas there is an account of the principal events, which were to take place during the Căli-yug.* These come down as late as the eighth and ninth centuries, except in the Agni and the Bhavi-shya Purănas, in which there is an account written as usual in a prophetical style, of the principal events, which were to take place, as late as the twelfth century. In the time of ACBAR, a supplement was added, down to Huma'yun, as is obvious from the lists of the kings of Mālwa in the second volume of the Ayin-Acberi. Since that time another supplement has been added, down to the beginning of the eighteenth century.

It is univerfally acknowledged, that the court of the kings of Magad ba, now the province of Babar, was once, one of the most brilliant that ever existed, and that learning was promoted there, through its various branches. Their vernacular language was cultivated, and many valuable treatises were written in it, in order to diffuse knowledge among all classes of men. This, I am informed, was carried so far as to incur the resentment of the whole sacerdotal class, who unanimously declared, that Magad ba could no longer be considered as a proper country for the twice-born to live in, without losing the fruit of their good works, and greatly impairing their energy in the paths of righteousness.

Besides geographical tracts, the Hindus have also maps of the world, both according to the system of the Pauranies, and of the astronomers: the latter are very common. They have also maps of India, and of particular districts, in which latitudes and longi-

^(*) The Brahmanda, Bhagarest, Vifbelu and Vayu Puradar. Sections on Futurity,

tudes are entirely out of question, and they never make use of a scale of equal parts. The sea shores, rivers, and ranges of mountains, are represented in general by strait lines. The best map of this fort I ever saw, was one of the kingdom of Napál, presented to Mr. Hastings. It was about four feet long, and two and a half broad, of paste board, and the mountains raised about an inch above the surface, with trees painted all round. The roads were represented by a red line, and the rivers with a blue one. The various ranges were very distinct, with the narrow passes through them: in short, it wanted but a scale. The valley of Napál was accurately delineated: but toward the borders of the map, every thing was crowded, and in consuson.

the margin rein or decide of the world THESE works, whether historical or geographical, are most extravagant compositions, in which little regard indeed is paid to truth. King VI-CRAMA'DITYA had four lakhs of boats, carried on carts, for ferrying his numerous armies over lakes and rivers. In their treatifes on geography, they seem to view the globe through a prism, as if adorned with the liveliest colours. Mountains are of folid gold, bright like ten thousand suns; and others are of precious gems. Some of filver, borrow the mild and dewy beams of the moon. There are rivers and feas of liquid amber, clarified butter, milk, curds, and intoxicating liquors. Geographical truth is facrificed to a fymmetrical arrangement of countries, mountains, lakes, and rivers, with which they are highly delighted. There are two geographical fystems among the Hindus: the first and most ancient is according to the Puráñas, in which the Earth is confidered as a convex furface gradually floping toward the borders, and furrounded by the ocean. The fecond and modern fystem is that adopted by astronomers, and certainly the worst of the two. The Pauranies confidering the Earth as a flat surface, or nearly fo, their knowledge does not extend much beyond the old continent, or

the superior hemisphere: but astronomers, being acquainted with the globular shape of the Earth, and of course with an inferior hemisphere, were under the necessity of borrowing largely from the superior part in order to fill up the inferior one. Thus their astronomical knowledge instead of being of service to geography, has augmented the confusion, distorted and dislocated every part, every country in the old continent. The Paurásics represent in general the Earth as a flat surface; though it appears from the context to be of convex sigure, with a gentle slope all round toward the ocean, which is supported by a circular range of mountains called Localocas by the Hindus; Caf by Musulmans, and by our ancient mythologists Atlas; Dyris, Dyrim, from the Sanserit sir, and tiram, the margin term or border of the world, or the larder (Earth's) Thremi in the Edda Sæmudr.

THE Jews and the ancients in general, considered the Earth as a flat surface. This idea was certainly a most natural one, till the study of astronomy had undeceived the learned, who, as usual at these early times, did not impart this discovery to the vulgar.

On the higher parts, and in the center of the Earth, the Hindus place a mountain standing like a column 84000 Yojans high, 32000 broad at the top, and 16000 at the bottom. It is circular, and in the shape of an inverted cone. This idea prevailed once in the West: for, when Clean-thes afferted that the Earth was in the shape of a cone, this, in my opinion, is to be understood only of this mountain called Méru in India*. Anaximenes said that this column was plain, and of stone: exactly like the Méru-pargwette (parvata) of the inhabitants of Ceylon, according

^{*} Phutarch de placit, philosoph.

no Mr. JOINVILLE, in the feventh volume of the Affatick Refearches. This mountain, fays he, is entirely of stone, 68000 Tojanas high, and 10,000 in circumference, and of the same size from the top to the bottom, The divines of Tibet fay, it is square, and like an inverted pyramid. Some of the followers of Budd'HA* in India infift, that it is like a drum with a swell in the middle, like drums in India; and formerly, in the Well, Leucippus had faid the fame thing; and the Baudd'bifts in India give that shape also to islands. This figure is given as an emblem of the reunion of the original powers of nature. Meru is the facred and primeval Linga: and the Earth beneath is the my sterious Youi expanded, and open like the Padma or Lotos. The convexity in the center is the Os Tinca, or navel of VISHNU: and they often represent the physiological mysteries of their religion, by the emblem of the Lotos; where the whole flower fignifies both the Earth, and the two principles of its fecundation: the germ is both Meru and the Linga: the petals and filaments are the mountains, which encircle Meru, and are also the type of the Yoni: the four leaves of the calyx, are the four vast regions toward the cardinal points; and the leaves of the plant, are the different illands in the ocean round Jambu: and the whole floats upon the waters like a boat. The Hindus do not fay, like the Chaldeans, that the Earth has the shape of a boat, which is only the type of it. It is their opinion, I do not know on what authority, that at the time of the flood, the two principles of generation affumed the shape of a boat with its mast, in order to preserve mankind. Enthusiasts among the Hindus see these two principles every where, in the clefts of rocks, commissures of branches, peaks among mountains, &c. The Earth is typified by a boat, the Argha of the Hindus, the Cymbium of the Egyptians, are also emblems of the Earth, and of the roysterious Yoni. The Argba, or Cymbium, fignifies a vessel, cup or dish,

in which fruits and flowers are offered to the Deities, and ought, to be in the shape of a boat; though we see many that are oval, circular, or square: Is wara is called Argba-nát'b'a, or the lord of the boat-shaped vessel*:) and Osiris, according to Plutarch, was commander of the Argo, and was represented by the Egyptians in a boat carried on the shoulders of a great many men, who, I think, might be called with propriety Argonauts. The ship, worshipped by the Suevi, according to Tacitus, was the Argba, or Argo, and the type of the mysterious Yoni. The Argba, with the Linga of stone, is sound all over India as an object of worship. It is strewed with flowers, and water is poured on the Linga. The rim represents the Yoni, and the fossa navicularis, and instead of the Linga, I's ware might be represented standing in the middle, as they used to do in Egypt.

The Hindus have peculiar names for the four cardinal points, detived from their respective situation, with regard to a man looking toward the rising sun, which is the most proper time to worship him. The East from that circumstance is called Para, and Purva, or before: the West Apara, and Paschima, or behind. The South being then to the right, is called Dacshina, and the North Vama, or the left.

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bust, which is only the type of it. it is their opinion

FROM dacsbiráa comes obviously the Greek dexion: the Latin dexter, dexterum is from dacsb-tir, or dacsbatiram, towards the right. Paśchima is obviously a derivative form, the root of which paścha is no longer to be found in Sanscrit, unless in other irregular forms, as pashchat, but it is still in use in the spoken dialects, in which it is pronounced picha, and from paścha is derived the Latin post, or behind, and postumus for postimus, answers to paśchima, or paśchum, in the spoken dialects. Para is the English

^{*} Afiatick Researches, Vol. III, page 364.

word fore: thus we fay a fairy from the Persian Peri. It is also pronounced pra, as in pra-pada the fore-foot, or fore part of the foot, including the Tarfus and Metatarfus; and from it is derived the Latin præ, and the Greek pro. From this circumstance there arose a peculiar division of the old continent, the midland countries are called Mad'byama, or in the middle, those toward the East Para, but more generally Púrva: Para is used oftener as an adjective noun, as Para-Gandica, the Eastern Gandica. The countries towards the West are denominated Apara, Apar. Its derivatives are aparam, apareña, an adverb; aparica, aparica, aparicam, masculine, seminine and neuter". This division is used in scripture, in which the appellations of Parvaim, and Opbir, fignify the countries to the East and to the West. These denominations are not deducible from the Hebrew; but only from the Sanscrit language: and Apar, and Aparica are the fame with Ophir, Aphar, and Africa. In Hebrew the word Ophir, without points, is written Aupir, and the learned bishop Lowth derives Africa. from Aupir, or Auphir. That country, we are told, was thus called from a certain Appros, or Apprais, who was the fon of Saturn, and the nymph PHEAURA, according to the Paschal chronicle. He was the brother of Picus, and CHIRON, and is called APHAR by CEDRENUS. Another ancient author, as I have fomewhere read, calls him OPHRIS, and APHRA, and fays he was a companion of HERCULUS: and ISIDORUS adds +, that the appellation of Afer was supposed to have been Aper originally. The word Apar ca is then fynonymous with Ibericus, Iberica, &c. The Latin word Apricus feems to have been used to denote a westerly fituation, as being more favoured with the congenial warmth of the fun. This ridiculous notion, still prevalent among the country peo-

[·] Aparica is a regular derivative form; but not in use-in this part of India: yet it is in the dialect from the Sanferit current in Ceylon, where it is written Aprica, and Aparega.

[†] Istoorus de originibus.

ple, in many parts of Europe, and in India, originated from a suppofition, that the Earth was a flat furface. Thus they fay, that part of the country is fertile, being under the fun of three; but the other is not fo, being under the fun of nine o'clock. The word Aparica is not used by the followers of BRAHMA, to denote the Western parts of the world: but it is constantly so by the Baudd'hists. Thus in Ava and in Ceylon the Western parts of the world are called by Mr. JOINVILLE* Aprica-Dani, and Apparengo-Daneh by Captain MAHONY. These denominations are Sanscrit, Aparica-Dhan' the Western mansions, or countries. Dhání is a place of abode in Sanscrit: in the language of Tibet, it is den, and fignifies also a country+, and the word den in English claims the same original derivation. The Burmabs, say Amaragoja, which is still a further corruption like Apparengo. The Eastern parts are called in Ceylon Purwaweedeseyeb from the Sanscrit Purva-deba, or Purva-videha, or Videhasya in a derivative form, the country of Purva, or toward the East. In Ava. they fay Pioppi-videba: but it should be Proppi-videba; for Mr. Bucha-NAN, in his interesting account of the learning, and manners of the Burmabs, informs us, that in that country they generally use the letter I. for R. thus in the Bengali dialect they fay Purob, and Pob for the East. The North is called by the Sinhalas Ootooroocooroo-Dewehinneh, according to Captain MAHONY from the Sanferit Uttara-curu flill used to fignify the Northern parts of the old continent. The same is called Uncheugru by the Burmabs according to Mr. BUCHANAN; but in the account of P. SAN-GERMANO, lent to me by Captain ROMAINE, it is Undeugru, which feems to be but a corruption from Uttara-curu. The Southern parts are called Jambu-dwipa in Ceylon; and Zabu-dib by the Burmahs. In the Vayu Pura ha the Eastern part of the old continent is equally called Purva-dwipa as

^{*} Afiatick Refearches, vol. VII. + Alphab, Tibet, p. 588, &c.

in Ceylon and Ava, and the river Oxus is called Apara-gandica, or Western Gandica; from whence we may safely conclude, that they said also Aparadwipa for the West. Apareyam and Apareya are regular derivative forms from Apara, and from them is obviously derived Iberia, the ancient name of the Western parts of Europe, including Gaul, and Spain. Homer uses in that sense, the appellations of Hypereia, and Apera*: Abera is found in Apollodorus; for thus we must read instead of Abdera, as we shall see hereafter. It is well known to the learned, that at a very remote period, Europe and Africa were considered but as one of the two grand divisions of the world, and that the appellation of Africa was even extended to the Western parts of Europe all along the shores of the Atlantic. Hence the West wind or Zephyrus is called the Libyan or African wind; and Homer, if I am not mistaken, makes Zephyrus to blow directly from Libya or Africa into Greece.

Instead of para and purva, the word much'a, face, or front, is often used, particularly in the spoken dialects, and some times with the augmentative particle su; and in the dialect of Bengal sho, thus they say sho-muc'b right in front, due East. Though equally grammatical, yet it is not usual to say, Su-para, Su-purva, Sho-para or Sho-purva in that sense. It seems however, that it was once in use, for in Scripture we have Parvaim, and Se-parvaim or Se-pharvaim, the name of a country, the situation of which is by no means well ascertained, yet it is probable, that it was near the mountains of Se-phar or Se-para towards the East according to Scripture: and it is not unreasonable to suppose, that Parvaim, Se-pharvaim with the mountains of Se-phar, belong to the same country, which I take to be India, called by the Copts, Sopheir; and by no means to be

Opver, Lib, VI. v. 4, et Lib, VH., v. 8, Apollod, Bibliotis, p. Lib, H. f. 10,

confounded with Ophir. India is also called by Hesventus and Josephus Su-phir or Su-pheir, and So-phora by Procopius.*

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THE Sanscrit appellation of Purvam for the Eastern countries, is written Parvim in Hebrew without points: but with points it becomes Parvaim, which appears in a plural form. The Septuagint read Pharvaim, and in that case in the singular number, it should be Parva or Pharva. In the course of etymological enquiries, I have always found it more convenient to read the Hebrew without points, when the affinity is obviously greater. Thus the word in question is written without point P-r-v-i-m, or with the vowel inherent to every consonant as in Sanscrit, and the common Nagri, Pa-ra-va-i-ma: the only difficulty in Nagri and Hebrew, is to find out in a word, what consonants are to coalesce. The words Se-phar and Se-pharvaim without the points, are to be read Se-para and Se-parvim.

The mountains of Se-phar, seem to be that range called Be-pyrrus by PTOLEMY, and placed by him to the North of India, answering to the first range, or snowy mountains. This range in PTOLEMY begins at Hardwar, and instead of Bepyrrus, several authors read Sepyrrus. In Sanscrit Su-para and Vi-para or Bi-para, for thus it is generally pronounced, are synonymous, and perfectly grammatical, though perhaps never used; and signify right before, due East. Bi-para signifies also Easternmost, and in its first acceptation is the same with before in English, which is now synonymous with fore or afore: yet there is no doubt but that formerly it was otherwise, and that before signified right afore. It is true, that the particles su, and bi like ge in the dialects from the Gothic, are often used with-

^{*} Procorius in Schol. ad Lib. 3, Regum,

out enhancing the fignification of the word they are prefixed to. Thus fore and before, para, su-para, bi-para, and su-mucha, or sho-mucha, in Bengalee fignify the same thing. The posterity of SHEM, we are told in Scripture, dwelt in the country extending from Mesha as thou goest unto Sephar, a mount of the East. This feems to be meant as an explanation of the word Sephar, and at all events implies that this mountain was a great way to the Eastward. In Europe they called the West Hesperus, and the country toward the West Hesperia. That country is considered by the Pauránics as the abode of the Gods, or Surálayam, an appellation well known to the learned, and applied by them, in conformity with the Puranas, to the Westernmost part of Europe, or the British Isles. Another denomination for Surálayam, and which might be Sanscrit, is I'sá-pura or I's' pura; though probably never used. This was pronounced by the Gothic tribes Af-burb, Af-byrig, Af-purgium: they faid also Af-gard, which implies the fame thing. There Is'A or Is'WARA VISH-NU, refides with all the Gods.

The word Isa was pronounced Afor, Afioi, by the Greeks, As by the Goths: and for puri, or pura, the Goths faid burb, byrig or burgh; the Greeks pyrgos. The words As-puri; As-burh, Afpurgium, Hefperus are pronounced by the Persians As-burj; where burj or burujs, is synonymous with puri, purb, &c. In their romances we see Cai-caus going to the mountain of Az-burj, or As-burj, at the foot of which the sun-sets, to sight the Div-sesid or white devil, the Tara-dairya of the Purasias, and whose abode was on the seventh stage of the world, answering to the seventh zone of the Baudd'hists and the sixth of the Paurasies, or in other words to the White Island. The Goths, it is true, placed As-burb, or As-gard in the East; for, when they had conquered the Western abode of the Gods, they found hone there, and rather than give up this idle

mount Meru is another Swaleyam, As-burh, As-gard, and is in the East.

Hencele month the fame thing. The policity of Sunary we are teld THE Fews and the Arabians, to this day call the South Yaman, Yamin, and Jamin, which imply the right. The Hindus call the South also Yamya or Jamya, and Yamasya, because YAMA PLUTO, called also YAMAN, is the guardian of that quarter: and, when PLINY* fays, that the Hindus called the South Dramafa, it should be Diamafa from Jamesya, as Diamuna for Jamuna, the river Jumna. We have seen that dexion in Greek, and dexter, dexterum in Latin are derived from the Sanscrit dacshina, dacsha-tir, and dacsha-tiram: and it is not improbable but that finister, sinistrum, sinisterium, or the left in Latin, and aristeros, aristeron in Greek, are equally, derived from the Sanscrit Senis-tir, or Senis-titam, and Arasya-tiram, or Aras-tiram: that is to fay, SATURN'S quarter, in the same manner that the Hindus say YAMA's quarter for the South. For SENIH or ARAH relided in the North: JUPITER gave him that quarter for his refidence, and made him guardian of it. SATURN, according to CICERO and PLUTARCH, was peculiarly worldripped by the nations in the Western parts of Europe, and in the North; though the latter fays, that in process of time, his worship began gradually to decline there. He was born in the left, and perished on the right. The Greeks and Romans considered the South as on the right, and the North on the left. Among them as well as the Hindus the right was considered as more honorable, and of course, in worshipping and performing processions, they turned towards the right, keeping the object of their worship on the right: but the Gauls, says PLINY, on these occasions turn to the left: and among the Greeks, and Romans in their

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gaces in the circus, they drove round the Spina or ridge in the middle, keeping it all the while on their left. The Hindus feem to have always confidered the four cardinal points in the fame light: but various fystems appeared at different times, in other parts of the world. EMPEDOCLES, according to PLUTARCH maintained, that the fummer folftice happened in the right, or North; and the winter folftice in the left, or South. This fystem prevailed once in the West, and of course the West was before and the East behind, or aparam, aparena, &c. from that time the winter folftice was called by the Latians, Hibernum, which cannot be derived from hyems winter. This last comes from the Sanscrit bima, and in a derivative form baima and baimas fnow; and byems implies the fnowy feason: and mount Haimos, or Hamus in Thrace fignifies the snowy mountain; and as the West was then before, it was called Su-para or Zephyrus, Se-phar and Se-pyrrus, like that famous range of mountains in the East mentioned by PTOLEMY and in the Bible. King JUBA, a famous antiquary, was also of opinion, that the North is on the right, and this is confirmed by ACHILLES TATIUS. The Egyptians, fays PLUTARCH, placed the North on the right, and the South on the left. These alterations must have occasioned seuds among augurs and aftrologers; and were probably, either admitted, or rejected at different times, according to the power, and influence of prevailing factions. This happened no less than four times in Egypt; and of course four times the points wherein the fun rifes and fets, were confidered in different points of view, and received different denominations: and well they might say to HERODOTUS, that the sun had four times altered the points of its rising, and setting. Twice it rose, where it set before: and twice it did set, where it was seen to rise before. All this happened, they faid, without the least alteration in the climate of Egypt. These the fund tool or all and the mythologilly in the Wett certainly did.

enigmas, or paradoxes, were much admired formerly, and they were not very willing to explain them.

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THE same thing happened in Europe: for the sun, shocked at the abominable repast of ATREUS, turned back and fet where it used to rise before, that is to fay, an alteration took place in the application of the denomination of before, and behind; right, and left, with regard to the four cardinal points: and ATREUS is represented as a famous astronomer, who explained the yearly revolution of the Sun, performed in a contrary direction; in confequence of which the Sun is faid by the Baudd'hifts, and also by Brahmens to rife in the West, and to set in the East: and the famous mountain of Afla-giri, behind which the Sun disappears, is called also the mountain of the rifing Sun or Udaya-giri, and even Mahodaya. In the extracts from manuscripts, in the library of the king of France, there is one from the golden meadows of the famous Masoudi, who lived in the tenth century. The author fays, that in the opinion of some philosophers, the renewal of the world would happen, when the circle of the ruling stars will be accomplished; then what had been North, will be South. But according to the Indians, fays he, the Sun remains 3000 years in each of the twelve figns, and performs his revolution in the heavens in 36,000 years. That, when he passes through the meridional figns, the world will be reverfed; North will become South; and South will become North: that is to fay, as I take it to be, the North will be confidered as the right of the world, and the South as the left. Some Hindus are of opinion, that, at the end of the Calpas, a total renewal of the world will take place, and every thing will be reverfed: the gods will become devils, and the devils gods. The giants, they acknowledge, were Purva-devas, or the first gods. The Egyptians perhaps entertained the same notions, and the mythologists in the West certainly did.

III. ANOTHER division of the world is into a mainland, and islands; which is also that of scripture, in which the isles of the nations, or lie-bagoim are often mentioned. This division has also been admitted by Musulmans, who call them Jezair-alomam. Commentators understand by them, not only the islands, but also the peninsulas in the Western parts of the old continent: for in Sanscrit dwipa implies only a country with water on both sides; so that like Jazirab in Arabic, they may signify either islands, or peninsulas; dwipa and jazirah are often used to signify countries bordering upon the sea only. By the isles of nations, the islands, peninsulas, and maritime countries in the West, and particularly in Europe are understood: it is even so with the Pauranics, who are very little acquainted with the Eastern parts of the old continent; even to a surprising degree, and much less than we could reasonably suppose.

The most remarkable seature of this system is mount Méru in the center, the Olympus of the Hindus, the place of abode of Brahma', and his Sabbá congregation or court. This mountain made also part of the cosmographical system of the Jews: for Isaiah, making use of such notions, as were generally received in his time, introduces Lucifer, in Sanserit Swarbha'nu or light of heaven, boasting that he would exalt his throne above the stars of God, and would sit on the mount of the congregation in the sides of the North. Méru has also the name of Sabbá, because the congregation or assembly of the Gods is held there, on its northern side. The hill of God is also frequently alluded to in the psalms, though in some instances it seems to imply mount Moriab. Musulmans have admitted this mountain under the name of Cas, though they consound it in general with the mountains of Lócalóca, which surround the world: but, when they say it is the vatad, or pivot of the world, this is to be understood of mount Méru, which the Paurásics describe exactly in the shape

of a pivot: and even Méru in Sanscrit signifies an axis, or pivot. According to Anguettl Duperron, the Parsis call this centrical mountain Tirch, and the whole world is equally surrounded by an immense range of mountains. In Ceylon this surrounding range is called Chacra-vartta, according to Captain Mahony*, which in Sanscrit signifies any thing in the shape of a ring or coit. The Burmahs call it Zetkia-vála, which world is pronounced Sakwell by Mr. Joinville, and said to signify the world in general. In Zetkia-vála, vála signifies a ring, or any thing in an annular shape, from the Sanscrit válya, and Zetkia-vala, or Sacwell, may be a corruption from Sácya-válya, the ring of Sácya or Budd'ha, who is supposed to have made it. The Western mythologists supposed the world and its seas to be surrounded by a land, or continent of a circular sigure, according to Plutarch, and Silenus's narrative, as related by Elian; and the pilot of the Argonauts being near Peuce, or Iceland, was very much afraid of being driven on its shores t.

There are several divisions of the old continent; the first, and the most ancient, according to the Puráñas, is into seven dwipas; the Baudd'hists in India reckon eight of them, this number being a favourite one among them. The followers of Budd'ha in Tibet, Ceylon, and Ava, have retained the Brübmenical divisions, and reckon but seven. This division was made by PRIVAVRATTA, the eldest son of Swayambhuva, or Adam in his old age and previous to his withdrawing into solitude. He had ten sons, and it was his intention to divide the the whole Earth between them equally: but three of them renounced the world: their names were Med'ha, Agnibhu, and Mina, or Mitra. In the same manner Neptune divided the Atlantis

^{*} Afiatick Refearches, Vol. VII.

between his ten fons: one of them had Gades at the extremity of the Atlantis to his share. The Atlantis was probably the old continent, at the extremity of which is Gades. This island or continent is supported by VARA'HA on one tusk according to the Pauranics: but according to mythologists in the West, ATLAS supported the heavens, though, he is said fome times to support the world. The Mufulmans say that the Earth is supported on the horns of a bull. This Atlantis was overwhelmed with a flood likewise; and it seems that by the Atlantis, we should understand the antidiluvian Earth, over which ten princes were born to rule, according to the mythology of the West: but seven of them only set upon the throne according to the Pauránics. The names of these islands are Jambu proper or India, Cusa, Placsha, S'almali or Salmala, Crauncha or Crounda Saca and Pushcara. These dwipas, or countries, give their names to so many respective zones round Meru, which is the name the Pauranies give also to the Poles. If we difregard entirely the diagrams, or fanciful schemes, of the astronomers, and adhere to the text of the Puranas, we shall immediately percive, that these seven zones are really our feven climates: for Jambu or India is the first, and Pushcara is declared to be at the furthest extremities of the West, and in the same climate with Uttara Curu; which last is expressly said to be the country lying South of the Northern ocean. Pufhcara is the Thule of PTOLEMY, and the modern Iceland, under the Arctic circle, at least the fensible one. It is true that the feven climates in general were not supposed to extend much beyond the mouth of the Borystbenes: but PTOLEMY, and AGATHEMERUS by dividing each climate into three parts, (like the Hindus who divide the feven zone-like regions of Heaven, Hell and Earth into three, beginning, middle and the end,) thus made twenty-one subordinate climates, extending from the equator to the polar circle. Every climate was denominated from some famous city, country or island in it, thus we have

the zone or climate of Meroë, that of Rhodes, &c. The dwipas, or climates of the Hindus, gradually increase in breadth, from the equator to the polar circle, from a whimsical notion that they are all equal, as to the superficial contents. The seven zones of the Hindus correspond with the following countries: Jambu is India, Cuśa answers to the countries between the Persian gulf, the Caspian sea, and the Western boundary of India. Placsha includes the lesser Asia, Armenia, &c. Sálmali is bounded to the West by the Cronian seas; that is to say, the Adriatic and Baltic seas. Crauncha includes Germany; Sacam, the British isles; and Pushcara is Iceland.

The Pauranies, however, consider these seven zones in a very different light, and the text of the Puranas is equally applicable to their scheme. By Méru they understand in general the North pole, but the context of the Puranas is against this supposition. In these sacred books, Méru is considered solely as a point to the North of India, from which sour large rivers issue, and slow toward the sour cardinal points of the world: and we frequently read of countries and places said to be to the North of Méru, others are declared to be West, East, South, and North-west from it. This surely can have no reference whatever to the North pole, where the denominations of North, East, and West vanish.

This Méru will appear in the sequel of this work, to be to the North of India, on the elevated plains of Tartary, and in the latitude of forty-five degrees. This point is considered in the Puránas, as the center of the world as known to the Hindus: there is its zenith or Méru, which is as applicable to a line passing through the center, zenith, and nadir of a place, as to that passing through the poles. In whatever light we consider Méru, it is always the center of the world, as delineated by the Pauránics. Cosmas, surnamed Indopleustes, from his travels into India in the sixth

drawn from China to Greece, it would pass through the center of the world, or through this Méru. The Pauranics and astronomers in India, had not then attempted to disfigure their cosmographical system: and did not, at that period, consider Méru as the North pole. Round this point they draw seven zones, and the context of the Puranas is as savourable to this supposition, as to the former, because these zones equally pass through the above islands. These zones have introduced much confusion, and entirely disfigured their geographical system. They are by no means countenanced in the body of the Puranas; being only introduced in a section of some of them called Bhú-c'handa, or section of the Earth, which seems to be interpolated, and of a more recent date.

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THE Hindus, and the followers of Bun'DHA, differ confiderably about the shape, and situation of the zones. The Pouranies say, that they are so many concentric circles enclosing Jambu, and situated between it and the land which bounds the Universe, and the first climate is that of Meru, included in the dwipa of Jambu: among the Greeks and Romans, the first climate was that of Meroe. Aftronomers having discovered that the Earth is of a globular form, have placed them within the Southern hemisphere, which they fill up entirely. The Baudd bifts of Tiber represent these zones as so many concentric squares between Jambu or India, and mount Méru. The followers of BUDD'HA in Ceylon consider them as so many circles, but place them also between Jambu and Méru considered as the North pole. The Jamas in India have in great measure adopted the Hindu system: but reckon eight dwipas. Dwipa-at'ba-mai bai faga fara, the whole world confifts of eight dwipas, fays the author of the Trailocyadarpaña. Though the followers of BUDD'HA seem to reckon seven dwipas like the Hindus, they really reckon eight; for Méru is not included among

the seven: they say the seven ranges of mountains, or zones round Meru: but the Pauranies consider Méru and Jambu as one of their seven dwipas Seven is a favourite and fortunate number among the Hindus: eight among the Baudd'bifts; and nine formerly in the West, and in the North of Asia. Between these zones, there are seven seas, or rivers only, according to some of the followers of Budd'HA, and some Hindus also. There are even fome, who confider these oceans, or rivers, either as one, or only as fo many branches springing from one head, and winding seven times round Méru according to the Pauranics, or eight times according to the Baudd'biffs: but according to Servius the Styn went nine times round the Earth. They reckoned accordingly nine feas, and nine dwipas, or worlds. These nine worlds are noticed in the Edda-Samudr, and the nine oceans are mentioned by PLUTARCH, who informs us that a certain Timarchus visited the oracle of TROPHONIUS, where in a vision he saw the islands of the departed in the eighth part, or division of the ocean. These islands, according to the Hindus, and the followers of JINA, are constantly placed in the last sea but one: thus they are in the fixth, according to the Hindus: in the feventh, according to the Jainas: but the Western mythologists placed them in the eighth, because they reckoned mine seas. Nine was held a mystical, and facred number in the Northern parts of the old continent, from China to the extremities of the West. The Cimbri observed the ninth day, month and year, facrificing ninety-nine men, as many horfes, &c. The number seven was held to be sacred by the Rebrews, and also by Musulmans to this day, who reckon seven climates, seven seas, seven heavens, and as many hells. According to Rabbis and Musulman authors, the body of ADAM was made of feven handfuls of mould taken from the feven flages of the Earth: and indeed the feven zones, or ranges of mountains are arranged by the Hindus like fo many steps, rising gradually one above another, in such manner that Méru looks like an immense pillar or

obelisk with a case, either circular or square, and confisting of seven steps, but according to others of eight, or even nine. The length or height of this obelifk is to its breadth, as 84 to 16. The Hindus generally represent mount Meru of a conical figure, and kings were formerly fond of raifing mounds of earth in that shape, which they venerated like the divine Méru, and the Gods were called down by spells to come and dally upon them. They are called Méru-śringas, or the peaks of Meru. There are four of them either in, or near Benares: the more modern, and of course the most persect, is at a place called Sar-nat'b. It was raised by the son of an Emperor of Gaur in Bengal, with his brother in the year of VICRAMA DITYA 1083, answering to the year of CHRIST 1027, as mentioned in an infeription lately found there. This emperor had, it feems, annexed Benares to his dominions, for he is reckoned as one of the kings of Benares under the name of BUDD'HA-SENA. This conical hill is about fixty feet high, with a small but handsome octagonal temple on the fummit. It is faid in the infeription, that this artificial hill was intended as a representation of the worldly Meru, the hill of God, and the tower of Babel, with its seven steps, or zones, was probably raised with a fimilar view, and for the same purpose.

I OBSERVED before that the Hindus place Jambu within these seven inclosures, while the heterodox Baudd'hists insist that it is without, and that these seven ranges of mountains, or dwipas, pass between it and Meru. As these zones, ranges, and inclosures are impossible, and of course never existed, they are to be rejected: but the countries, and islands, after which they were denominated, and through which they are supposed to pass, probably existed with their surrounding seas. The Nubian geographer is the only author, I believe, who has connected the seven climates with as many seas, or rather bays, and gulfs, as he calls them.

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IV. THE first, or dwips of fambu, commonly called India, was formerly an island, as it appears from the inspection of the country. The British provinces along the Ganges from Hari-dwar, down to the mouth of that river, was formerly an arm of the fea : and in the fame manner, toward the West, another arm of the sea extended from the mouth of the Indus to Hari-dwar, and there met the other from the East. A delineation of the Northern shores of India could not be attended with much difficulty, as they are in general fufficiently obvious. The fea coast may be traced from the Neelgur mountains to Rájamábl, where it turns suddenly to the West. There the shore is bold, and rises abruptly, forming a promontory confisting chiefly of large rounded stones, irregularly heaped together, but these irregular heaps may be only the ruins of more regular Arata in the mountain. These stones are in general of an oval, yet irregular shape, about two feet long, some times three. Their superior and inferior furfaces are somewhat flattened, and in some instances I thought I perceived, that one was concave, and the other convex. I found also there some Volcanic nuclei above one foot and a half in diameter: in one that was broken the interior coats were very obvious; the outward furface was remarkable for numerous cracks and fiffures, some very deep, and all forming together a variety of irregular figures. This I found at the foot of the hill near the Sacri-gully pass; unfortunately, I am not sufficiently acquainted with natural history to enter upon such a subject; and I shall conclude with observing, that I conceive the cascade of Muti-jirná near this place, to be the remains of the crater of a Vulcano. This I mention with a view to engage the attention of persons better qualified than I am, for fuch enquiries*.

In consequence of this, Mr Samuel Davis, some time ago, requested a German gentleman, well skilled in natural history, and who was going upon the Ganges, for the benefit of his health, to stay at Rájamáhl, and ascertain, whether these were the remains of a Vulcano or not. That gentleman, whose name I do not recollect now, having maturely examined every particular appearance about Musicipina and Rájamáhl, wrote a short essay, in which he proves these appearances to be Vulcanic, and the caseade to be the undubitable remains of the crater of a Vulcano.

FROM Rajamabl, the shore trends toward the West, forming several head lands; the principal of which are Mongbeir, and Chunar. From thence it goes all along the banks of the Jumna' to Agra, and to Delbi, where it ends, forming two small rocky eminences; and then turns fuddenly to the South West; and forming an irregular femi-circle, it trends toward the Indus. which it joins near Backer, at the distance of about four coss from that place, and one from Lobri, or Robri, where fuddenly turning to the South, it goes toward Ranipoor fixteen cofs from Robri, and four from Gunmot on the Indus. This account is from Captain FALVEY, who vifited that country about the year 1787. From Delbi to Backar in a direct line there are no mountains, which remain to the South of this line, forming an immense curve. Thus from the mouth of the Indus, to that of the Ganges, round Delbi, it is an immense flat and level country. The beach of the shores to the North, at the foot of the snowy mountains, and to the South round the island of India in ancient times, is covered with pebbles, some of the most beautiful I ever saw. But the greatest part of them are not real pebbles: they are only fragments of stones, marble, and agate, rounded and polished by mutual attrition, produced by the agitation of the waves. It feems as if the waters, which once filled up the Gangetic provinces, had been fuddenly turned into earth: for the shores, the rocks, and islands rife abruptly from the level; and are every where well defined, and strongly marked; except where the surface of the adjacent level has been disturbed by the incroachments of rivers, and torrents from the hills in the rains, or by the industry of man. This I noticed particularly about Birbboom, and to the South-east of Chunar. What we call the hills in this country, and which appear fuch, from the immense plains below, are in reality the Table-land of old India. In the Gangetic provinces no native earth is to be found, and the foil confifts of various frata of different forts of earths, in the greatest confusion.

the lightest being often found below the heaviest. The deepest excavation, that ever came to my knowledge, was made fome years ago near Benares, at a place called Comowly, within a furlong, I believe, of the Ganges, by some gentlemen, who were erecting some indigo works. They pierced through an amazing thick fratum of fliff earth, without obtaining water. They found then feveral beds of mould, and fand remarkably thin; then at the depth of about ninety-five feet, they arrived at an old bed of the Ganges, which confifted of a deep fratum of river land, with bones of men and quadrupeds. They were supposed to be petrefactions, from their extraordinary weight; though they preserved their original texture. The human bones were entire, but those of quadrupeds were broken, and bore evident marks of their having been cut with a sharp instrument. This bed was exactly thirty feet below the present bed of the Ganges. Below this fratum of fand, they found another of clay; and below it, some mould: then, at the dapth of about one hundred and five feet, they found a bed of fine white fand, fuch as is found on the sea shore. Under this, they found a bed of the same clay, and earth, as there was above: and they were relieved from their labours, by a copious stream of fresh water. The fight of the sea sand gave me some hope of finding some marine productions, but I was disappointed; which shews that this bed of fand was merely adventitious, and had been brought down by the river from the shores to the lower parts of its bed; and that the old bottom of the sea was confiderably below. The same appearences, with human bones, have been found lately at different places in digging wells near the Ganges, and generally at the same depth nearly.

To ascertain the quantity of the declivity, both of the country, and of the bed of the Ganges, would be useful and entertaining: but I have nothing but conjectures to offer on this subject. When we consider

the numerous windings of this river, we may fafely conclude, that the declivity cannot be confiderable. It is greater from Hurdwar to Al'ababad, and through the country of Oude, than any where elfe. From Allababad to Sacri-gully, it appears to be trifling: but from the head of the Delta, where the banks are generally about thirty feet above the furface of the waters of the river, when at their lowest period, the declivity is uniform down to the fea (where the land is nearly on a level with it) for a fpace of two hundred and thirty miles: I have often observed, between Allahabad, and Rajama'bl, that there was no fenfible declivity in the furface of the waters of the river, when at their lowest period, for ten miles, in some places fifteen, and even twenty in others. For fince there was no fensible current in the river and the winds were filent, there could be no declivity. Besides, the river Cosa, which fell into the Ganges formerly opposite Rajama'hl, has altered its course, and joins this river twenty-five miles higher up, which is the distance between Nabob-gunge and its present mouth. If the declivity was very considerable, this could not have happened. In the Western parts of the Gangetic provinces there are two declivities, one from the North and the other from the West, in confequence of which the rivers flow in a compound direction toward the South-east. But as you advance toward the East the declivity from the West toward the East decreases gradually, and of course the rivers incline more and more toward the South, till the declivity from the West, difappearing entirely, they run directly South into the Ganges. rivers in Babar to the South of the Ganger, run also directly North into the Ganges. Oceanique fretis centeno jungitur anni.

This inland-fea being narrower at the bottom, near Hardwar, was of course sooner filled up; and the table land of old India about Delbi, is very little above the level of the country. In the time of BHAGI-

RAT'HA the Gangetic provinces are represented as uninhabitable, except in the upper parts of the country, where SATYAVRATTA, or NOAH is faid to have generally refided. BHAGIRAT'HA went to Hardwar, and obtained the Ganges, led her to the ocean, tracing with the wheels of his chariot two furrows, which were to be the limits of ber incroachments. The distance between them is faid by some to be four coss, and according to others four Yojanas: and the Ganges has never been known, it is faid, to transgress on either side. This legend is of great antiquity, as it is mentioned by PHILOSTRATUS in his life of APOLLONIUS. The Ganges, fays he, once nearly overflowed all India (the Gangetic provinces): but his fon directed its course toward the fea, and thus rendered it highly beneficial to the country. Thus we read in the history of China, that the Hoangho formerly caused great devastations all over the country: but the emperor Yv went in fearch of its fource, from whence he directed its course to the sea. HERCULES, at the command of Osiris, brought the Nile from Ethiopia; this, Christians and Musulmans formerly attributed to ENOCH, or IDRIS. BHAGIRAT'HA thus brought the Ganges to a place on the shores of the ocean, called Gangá-Sagara, where it was made to discharge its waters through seven channels, but according to others through one hundred. The first number is mentioned by MELA, and the other by APULEIUS. morozona more uwas belie South, till the declivity from the Aven, dif-

Eois regnator aquis in flumina centum,

Discurrit, centum valles illi, oraque centum,

Oceanique fretis centeno jungitur amni.

This king of the Eastern wave runs into a bundred streams; with a bundred mouths, through a bundred channels, like so many vallies; and joins the ocean through a bundredfold stream."

THE Ganges advancing toward the ocean was frightened, and fled back through one bundred channels, according to the Pauráfics: and through this exercise she goes twice every day.

matry, between the said at

This happened at a place called Purana-Sagara, or old Sagara; for the new Sagara is in the island of that name near the sea, and the old one is near Fulta, close to a place called Munda-gachha, or Moragatcha, in Major RENNELL's Atlas. There is an infignificant fiream very often dry, which is the true Ganges, which divides its waters into feven small rivulets, fome of which are delineated in the Bengal Atlas: from this circumstance, the Ganges is called S'at-muc'hi-Ganga' in the spoken dialects, or with feven mouths. When the is called Sata-muc'bi, or with one bundred mouths, this implies her numerous channels, through the Sunderbunds. The old Sagara, probably the Oceanis of Dioporus the Sicilian, is now about fifty miles from the Southern extremity of Sagar island; and this distance shews the encroachment of the land upon the fea, fince the days of BHAGIRAT'HA, who lived above two thousand years before CHRIST, according to the geneological fcale prefixed to my essay on the chronology of the Hindus. The new Sagara was originally on the fea shore, but it is now five, or fix miles from it toward the East, and many more toward the North. It is to be wished, that the era of its foundation could be ascertained, as it would enable us to form fome idea of the gradual progress of the encroachments of the Delta upon the fea.

THERE can be no doubt, but that the factitious foil of the Gangetic provinces, and of the Panjáb, has been brought down by the alluvious of rivers from the countries to the North of India. The quantity of earth thus brought down must have been very considerable at a very

left nothing but the bare rocks, with such sparcels of ground as were out of their reach, from their being supported and protected by stony ramparts. The country, between the ranges to the North of India is a table-land, and forms, as it were, so many steps, as mentioned in the Trai-locyaderpaña, and by the Pauránics. This circumstance was ascertained by Mr. Samuel Davis, who went as far as the first range. This was also confirmed to me by natives, with respect to other parts of the country, as far as Cashmir. On these table-lands are also various peaks, and mountains, and the beds of the rivers look like so many ravines of an enormous size.

V. By the dutpa of Jambu, the Pauratics understand in general the old continent, but the followers of Budd' HA, in Tibet, Ava, and Ceylon, understand India, and many passages from the Puratias, prove that it was originally understood of India only.

comprodunce, the Congres is called Saisemelle-

THE dwips of Jambu or India, is called also Canya-dwips, or the island of the virgin or damsel, daughter of king Bharats, the fifth from Swayambhuva or Adam. Her name was Ila, or the Earth: this was also the name of the daughter or Satyav ratta or Prithu, for though the Earth was his wife, she became also his daughter. The sea surrounding Jambu is called the Lavana-samudra, or salt sea. It would have been highly imprudent for the Pauratics to have placed there seas, either of milk or honey.

THE second dwipa, is that of Cusa, thus called either from a sage of that name, or from the grass Cusa, or Poa, supposed to grow there plentifully. It includes all the countries from the Indus to the Persian gulf, and the Caspian sea, which probably the Pauránics made the limits of that

country, or dwipa, and afterwards supposed to form a watery belt round the zone of Cusa, under the name of sea of Sura or Ira, or sea of intoxicating liquors. The origin of this denomination may possibly have some affinity with Iran, and the Sur or Affur of scripture. It is probable that Sur and Affur were once confidered as fynonymous; if not, then Sur, or Syria, certainly extended once from the shores of the Mediterranean sea to the gulf of Persia, and even included the greatest part, if not the whole of Arabia. The dwipa of Cusa is the land of Cush of scripture, at least part of it. Cusha should be pronounced nearly like Cusha, but not quite so forcibly, like the two I in the English word cession. The third dwipa is Placsha, or the country abounding with fig-trees. It is called Palangshu by the mythologists of Bootan, and included the lesser Asia, Armenia, &c. The name still remains in Placia, a town in Myfia, the inhabitants of which, with those of Scylace, had a peculiar language, which was the same with that spoken by the Pelasgi of Crestone, or Crotone above the Tyrrhenians in Italy; and by the Pelasgi, who lived on the shores of the Hellespont according to HERODOTUS. Thus the denomination of Placibu, or Palangibu, feems to be the same with Placia, and Pelasgia; and the Pelasgi came originally from the leffer Asia. It is bounded by the sea of Ioshu, or juice of the sugar-cane, and which seems to be the Euxine sea: but this will be the subject of a separate article, when it will appear, that the Pauranies have confounded the Ask, or Ash-tree, with the Icshu or sugar-cane, as this tree produces also a sweet juice samous in the Edda, and called when boiled asky by the old Scythians, according to HERODOTUS, who has however strangely misrepresented the tree from which this fweet juice was procured, and which was aftewards boiled into a hard substance, like that of the sugar-cane, which is called gur in India. Hence the Ieshu sea, is called also in the Puranas, the sea of Guda in Sanscrit, and pronounced gur in the spoken dialects.

The fourth dwips is Salmali, Salmals, or Salmalita, or the country of the willow *, and of the lord of the willow Salmaleswans Salmalicesa, the fame with Zamolkir, called also more properly Salmolkis and Zalmolkis. It extended from the Euxine to the shores of the Bultic and Adriatic seas. It is surrounded by the sea called Sarpi, Ghrita, or clarified butter.

The fifth dwipa is called Crauncha, and Craunda, which includes Germany, France, and the Northern parts of Italy. Crauncha is the fame with Cronus, confounded with SATURN by Western mythologists; and the Baltic and Adriatic seas were probably called Cronian from the dwipa of Crauncha. It is surrounded by the Dad'hi-Ságara, or sea of curds.

THE fixth dwipa, is called Saca, and Sacum, and includes the British isles. It is surrounded by the sea of milk, or the white sea; Cshirabd bi and Dugd'habd'bi, Cshira-Sagara, or Cshira-Samudra, Cshira-Salila, Cshiramid'bi, Cshiramava. It is called also Amritabd'hi, or sea of Amrita, synonymous with Amalaci, from which they made Amalchium in the West. It is called also Somasaila'bd'hi, or the sea of the mountain of the Moon.

THE feventh dwipa is Pushcara or Ice-land, surrounded by the Swaduda, Swadudaca, Swadujala, Payod'hi, Toyabd'hi, or the sea of fresh water: for it was also the opinion of the ancients, that the surthermost ocean was of fresh water: Scythicus Oceanus dulcis est, says Pliny.

Felder commencionally from the lefter Age.

THE Western ocean is in general called Mabodábd'hi and Mabárnava or the great sea; and in the Revac'banda the Chira-Samudra is said to come down as low as the parallel of Himavan, or the snowy mountains,

The word S'almala is generally understood to fignify Bomlyx? but it fignifies also such trees as produce cotton unfit for spinning: and I shall show when I come to treat of S'almala-dwipa, that it is to be understood there of the willow.

or about thirty degrees of latitude North. CALANUS feems to allude to these wonderful leas, when he said to ALEXANDER's messenger, that formerly there were springs of water, others of milk, honey, wine and oil, but that in the prefent wicked age and degenerated times, they had disappeared. This is also the opinion of many divines in India, who believe that in Cali-yuga these seas have disappeared, or are turned falt, and bitter, and also, that the white island, is become black, on account of the fins of mankind. ONESICRITUS, to whom CALANUS was speaking, was probably unwilling to give credit to these seas of milk, wine, and honey, but could have no great objection to fprings only of the same. One of the seven seas is called Cshaudra-Sagara or sea of honey, I believe, in the Sidd'banta-Siromeni. There is another division of the world into seven dwipas; more complete than the preceding, but its origin is not mentioned. Their names are, Jambu, in the center; to the West, reckoning from North to South, are the dulpas of Varaba Cusa and Sanc'ha; to the East, reckoning from South to North, Tamala or Malaya, Yama, and Anga. The dwipas of Cuta and Yama are acknowledged to be East and West with respect to India. Jambu here appears again in a different light. It includes India, the elevated plains of Turvary and mount Meru, and extends towards the West to the Coffian fee, and the Penfian gulf. The followers of JINA, in India, reprefent Jambu mearly in the fame light, except that they make it larger, and feen to extend it as far as the shores of the Euxine and Mediterranean fess, of avabadrespa being fituated in the North West quarter of the old Continent, is Europe, as will appear more fully in the course of this work. . The awipe of Cuso, according to this new division, includes the leffer Afia, Armenia, Syria and Arabin. There feems also to be a third dwipa of Cusamear the requitor; which includes Ethiopia, &cc. The Pauranics account plausibly for these three different situations assigned to Cusa, by

fupposing it owing to the fuccessive emigrations of the original inhabitants of that country; and the first and second & for they consider but as one and the same.

The third dwipa is that of S'anc'ha or Africa, of which they know but little, and nothing beyond Ethiopia, or rather Abyfinia and Egypt with the Eastern shores. It retains in great measure its Sanscrit name; an extensive part of that coast being called Length, and Length-bhar to this day. But PTOLEMY extends it as far as cape Gardasui, to the South of which, he places another cape called Lingis, or Singis extrema. The denomination of S'anc'ha is obvious also in the names of Singis, Lengthsan, and perhaps Lengitana, Langiro, Lanbaga, Lenighi, and even perhaps Senegal, from the Sanscrit Sanc'hala in a derivative form: and the Troglodytes are called to this day Shangalas.

S'anc'ha-dwipa fignifies the island of shells, and the natives, according to Strabo, used to wear large collars of them; but, according to the Pauranies, the inhabitants used to live in shells: probably in caverns, hollowed like shells, or compared to shells. The samous demon S'a'nc'hasura lived in a shell. When Crishna killed him, he took the shell in which he lived, and which is now become one of Vishnu's insignia. This strange idea was not unknown to the Greeks, who represent young Nerites, who is one of the Curids, as living in shells, on the shores of the Red sea. S'anc'ha-dwipa is then synonymous with Trogladytica of the ancients. The Trogladytes, or inhabitants of Caves are called in scripture Sukim, because they dwelt in Sucas, or dens; but it is probable, that the word an arbour, a booth, or a tent, was originally taken in the sense of a

cave, from S'anc'ba, and afterwards used to imply any fabric to dwell if. Thus the word den is obviously derived from the Sanferit d'hani, or den in the language of TIBET, in which it fignifies any place, house or even country to live in. The Sukim, or Sukkum were a powerful nation in the time of REHOBOAM, for they accompanied Shishac in his expedient against Jerusalem; and we find their descendants, in the third century of the Hejra, croffing Arabia, and invading Irak-Arabi, or the country about Babylon under their king SAHEB-AL-ZENG, or the lord of Zeng, Jo who appears as a successor of the famous SANC'HA-MUC'HA-NAGA, a giant in the shape of a snake, with a mouth like a shell, and whose abode was in a shell: and who had as usual two countenances, that of a man, and another of a snake. He was killed by CRISHNA; but his descendants and fubjects, in fimilar shapes, still remain there. He is called also PA'NCHA-JANYA. The breath of the SANC'HA-NA'GA is believed by the Hindus to be a fiery poisonous wind, which burns and destroys animals, and vegetables to the distance of a hundred Yojanus round the place of his residence : and by this hypothesis they account for the dreadful effects of the Samum, or hot envenomed wind, which blows from the mountains of Hubab, through the whole extent of the defert. The fage AGASTYA, who is supposed to live in the South West or Abyssinia, put an end to this evil; and even reduced the serpent so much as to carry him about in an earthen vessel. This legend is current in the Western parts of India, but, how far it is countenanced in the Puranas, I cannot fay. The Hindus in the Western parts of India are remarkably well acquainted with the superstitious monuments, rites and legends of the Mufulmans in Arabia, and Egypt, fuch as the serpent Heredi, the black stone in the Caaba, the two pigeons destroyed by MOHAMMED, and the impression of a foot on a stone there. These, plausibly enough, they claim as their own property, and have traditionary legends purporting to be grounded on the Pauranas, though per1

haps not expressly found there. They say, there was formerly a great intercourse between them and Egypt, Abyssia, and Arabia, where there are Hindus, and Brabmens even to this day, as well as all over Persia, and even in Georgia. Fackeers occasionally go there, and certain it is, that the samous Urd'ha-Ba'hu, who travelled to Moscow, and died lately at Benares, attempted to go to Egypt, but he went no surther than El-Catis and Babarein on the Western shores of the Persian gulf, being deterred from going surther. I have made mention of him in my essay on Sami-Rames, called Sami-Dens' by the Hindus. Prolemy saw many Hindus at Alexandria, and they used to visit the temple of Maha'-Bha'ga'-pevi at Bambyke or Mabog in Syria according to Lucian, as cited by the authors of the ancient universal history.

fubjeding in finisher flatges, this commissioners. He is called the Payer a-

THE mountains in which S'ANC'HASURA lived, are called to this day Hubab in Arabic, or the mountains of the ferpent, and the people of these mountains have, according to the Abyssinian traveller, legendary traditions of a fnake, who formerly reigned over them, and conquered the kingdom of Sire. They are famous with their ferpentine tribes in Oriental tales; and in the Arabian Nights, we read of the miraculous ofcape of SINBAD from the devouring mouth of that dreadful race, who lived in caves among the mountains. Near that country be was exposed to many dangers from the birds called Rocks or Simorgs, the Garudas of the Pauranies, whom Persian romaneers represent as living in Madagofear, according to MARCO POLO. The ferpent Sanc'be- Naga is now called Heredi in Egypt. The Mufulmans infift, that it is a Shaikh of that name transformed into a fnake; the Christians, that it is Asmodeus mentioned in the book of Tobit, the Ashmugh div of the Pensians. There in the dwipa of Sancha is the capital city of Naisrit, or Palli, called Griffmangana, being fituated on the river Criffma, or Criffmangana, that

is, with a black body in a human shape : for fivers have two countenances. NATER IT had a famous elephant called Cumuda, with the title of Nairringadigaja, or the elephant of the South West quarter, or Nairrit. Wonderful stories are related of him : and there is no doubt but some of them are mentioned in the Purakas, or fome other books: but I could not find them. This famous elephane is however mentioned in Lexicons, and lived in Sanc'ha-dwipa, with his tribe of giants in the shape of elaphants, or rather with two countenances. The names of feveral givers in that country are pure Sanferit; and obviously allude to the ancient inhabitants in the shape of elephants, hving and sporting on their banks. Thus the Aiftamenor is from Haftiman or Hafti-mati full of elephants. The Mareb was called Aftofalas from Hafti-Sabba, because their chief held his court there. Affaboras or Affabaras was also the name of another river there, from Hasti-vara or Hasti-bara, the country along its banks being full of elephants, whose abode it was. ever med. Tilgrade may also bardenized timply from Midfel, prenoun-

THERE the unfortunate SINBAD, according to SADF in the Arabian Nights, was once more in the most imminent danger amongst this Elephantine tribe, on his return from Seren-dip, or rather Serandah or Madagascar, called also Raneh, and in the Puráhas, Hariha.

rated to game we iffered the Decent this confidence forme englation,

In my effay on Egypt, I mentioned the unfortunate affray between the fon of Cussid, and some of these elephants, in consequence of which he became a Caunapa, or like a dead corpse. I cannot ascertain whether the whole legend be genuine or not: certain it is, that in Lexicons the Carenapás are mentioned as belonging to the train, and retinue of NAIRRIT or PALLI, and of course they lived either in Elebiopia or in Egypt.

THE dwipa of Sancha, is supposed by the int. to join the island

of Sumatra, or of the Moon. This mistaken notion has been adopted by PTOLEMY, and after him by Oriental writers. In the beginning of the Brahmanda-purana, Lanca, or the peninfual of Malaya, and Sumatra join the island of S'anc'ba or Zengh. Samastbitam, adhering to is a participial form answering to con-stitum in Latin, and sun-islamai in Greek. This is understood of the island of Mandara or Sumatra, for it is positively declared, that Maba Lanca or Malacd, and Sumatra, are separated by a strait called Lancá-dwára, or the gates of Lancá. PTOLEMY however supposed it was the peninsula of Malaca, that was thus joined to Africa; and for this purpose makes the shores take a most circuitous turn. EL EDRISSI afferts equally, that the ifle of Malai joins toward the West to the country of Zengh. The inland, or Mediterranean fea, is called Yamodadhe. or the sea of Yama, and by PTOLEMY Hippados, perhaps from the Sanscrit Upábd'bi, which would imply a subordinate or inferior sea. This expression would be perfectly grammatical, but I do not recollect that it is ever used. Hippados may also be derived simply from Abd'bi, pronounced Apa'bi or the fea. The tract of illands called Raneb by Arabian writers, and including Madagascar, and the surrounding islands, is obvioully the dwipa of Harina mentioned in the Bhagavata along with S'anc'ba in the South West quarter of the old continent. This island being also called in Arabic the isle of the Moon, has occasioned some confusion. Doctor VINCENT has thrown much light on this subject, in his learned and elaborate treatife on the Periplus of the Erythræan sea: by which it appears, that the notions of the Arabs, relating to these seas, are more conformable to the Puranas than PTOLEMY's description. The three dwipas to the Eastward are Yamala, or Malaya, now the peninsula of Málaca, and the adjacent illands; as for the dwipa of Yama, its fituation is rather obscure; the third is Anga-dwipa in the North East; by which they understand China. There is very little about it in the Puranas, and

with regard to the dwipas of Yama and Malaya, they will be the subject of a particular paragraph.

VI. There is another division of the old continent, extracted chiefly from the Bbógávata, the Brahmándá and Brahmá-Puranas, which represent the world under the emblem of a Nymphæa or Lotos, floating on the ocean. There the whole plant fignifies both the Earth, and the two principles of its fecundation. The stalk originates from the navel of VISHNU, sleeping at the bottom of the ocean; and the flower is described as the cradle of BRAHMA, or mankind. The germ is both Méru and the Linga: the petals and filaments are the mountains which encircle Meru, and are also the type of the Yoni; the four leaves of the calyx are the four vast dwipas or countries toward the four cardinal points. Eight external leaves placed two by two, in the intervals are eight subordinate dwipas or countries.

The four great countries, or Maba-dwipas, are Uttara-curu to the North, Bhadraśva to the East, Jambu to the South, and Cetumala to the West. In the intermediate spaces in the North-West are Swarna-prasi'ha or Ireland, and Chanara-śucla-Avarttana, or Britain. In the North-East are Ramanaca and Mandara: these are unknown, and have been placed there probably for the sake of symmetry. In the South-East, Lanca, the peninsula of Malaca, Sinbala or Ceylon: in the South-West there is Harina, the Raneh of Arabian authors now Madagascar; and Pancha-janya, or Sanc'ha; as may be seen in the accompanying delineation of the world-ly Lotos.

THE usual division of the known world is into nine c'handas or portions exactly of the same size as to superficial contents, but of very different figures and dimensions. In the center of the old continent, on the highest and most elevated spot, is the division called **Bladvasas*, or the circle of **Ilas*; to the East is **Bbadvassas*, and to the West **Cerumala*, or simply **Cetu*. Toward the South are three ranges of mountains, and as many to the North: between them are four divisions, two between the three ranges in the South, and as many between those in the North. The names of the ranges to the South of **Ilavratta* are **Himáchala*, **Himádrá* or the snowy mountain: to the North of this range is the second called **Hema-cút'a* from its golden peaks: the country or division between them is called **Cimpu-russa*, or **Cinnara-chanda*. The third range is called **Nishad'ha*, and the country between this, and **Hema-cut'a* is called **Harivarssam*, or **Hari-c'handa*.

North of this range is another called Sweta, or the white mountains: the North of this range is another called Sweta, or the white mountains: the country between these two is called Ramyaca: the third and last range is called Sringa-ván: and the country between the two last is Hiranyamaya, or Hiranmaya. These six ranges extend from sea to sea, and are of disferent length, according to the latitudes they are in. The length of the two innermost ranges, and of course of the longest, is equal to the breadth of Jambu-dwipa or 100,000 Yojanas: the length of the two middle ranges Swéta, and Hema-cúia is 90,000 Yojanas: the two outermost Sringa-ván and Himáchala are 80,000 Yojanas in length. These mountains are 2000 Yojanas broad and as many high, or about 10,000 miles: we are informed in the Cálicá-purána, that it was so formerly; but that since, the mountains have gradually subsided, and that the highest is not above one Yojana in height, or less than sive miles.

According to the Trai-locya-darpaña: these ranges do not extend

from sea to sea, and occupy little more than the sourth part of the breadth of the old continent, which is in that treatise said to be equal to 60,000 Fojanas. The length of the two outermost ranges is declared to be 4202 Yojanas: the two middle ones 8416: and the two innermost 16,832. This is the more reasonable, as these three ranges very plain and obvious in the North of India, are soon consused together and disappear at some distance from it: and as 150,000 Yojanas in the Tre-loci-derpana, are considered as equal to 180 degrees of longitude, the first range will extend East and West, about two and twenty degrees of longitude, which is the utmost breadth of India. The difference, between the two other ranges and the first, is disproportionate and inadmissible: and the proportion given in the Purasias of their respective lengths is more natural, being in the ratios of ten, nine and eight. In this manner the three ranges are in a great measure confined to the original Jambu or India.

THE country, to the South of the Southernmost range is called Bharata, and originally was confined to India; but it is also enlarged along with Jambu, and is now made to extend from the shores of the Atlantic to those of the Eastern ocean.

In the same manner the country beyond the Northernmost range as far as the frozen ocean is called Curu, or Airávata, being the native country of the samous elephant of INDRA called Airávata, and of his numerous tribe and descendants, whose exuviæ or spoils are to be found in vast quantities in the Northern parts of the old continent. These nine divisions are said to be perfectly equal in superficial contents, though of different shapes: and the only difficulty in delineating a general map of the world, is to divide the whole surface into nine equal parts, one of which in the center is to be a perfect square, and out of the eight others, every two

divisions are to have exactly the same figure and dimensions. The accompanying map of Jambu, which is very common, is supposed to be drawn on these principles; but whether it be very exact in that respect, I shall not determine, as I am by no means willing to go through the necessary calculations, which after all would prove of no use. In confequence of this arrangement, the first range, or the snowy mountains, lies under the parallel of fifty-two degrees of latitude: the second under that of 65° 48'; and Nishad'ba in 76°. Méru is here supposed to be the North pole. The three other ranges beyound Méru are exactly in the same latitudes, reckoning from the opposite side of the equator, which circumscribes the Northern hemisphere. But Méru is not the North pole; it is true that it is the Nava, Nobeb, or under the ninetieth degree not from the equator, but from the horizon: or in other words, it is the zenith, and center of the known world, or old continent not including the fea; and this center according to the Pauranics, in the time of COSMAS INDOPLEU-STES, in the middle of the fixth century, was faid to be exactly between China and Greece. We read constantly in the Puranas of countries, mountains, and rivers, fome to the North, others to the East, or to the West of Meru: the country of North-Curu beyond Meru, is repeatedly declared to be to the South of the Northern ocean. All these expressions shew very plainly that by Méru the Pauranics did not originally underfland the North pole, which they call Sidd'bapur; which place, the aftronomers say cannot be under the North pole, because it is in the track of the fun: for when the fun is there, it is midnight at Lanca and in India: it must be then under the equator. This is very true; but we are to argue in the present case according to the received notions of the Pauranics, who formerly considered the Earth as a flat surface with an immense convexity in the center, behind which the fun disappeared gradually, descending so as to graze the surface of the sea at Sidd'bapura. In the Brahmanda Pura-

great tivets, is not in

na, section of the Bhuvana-Cos'a, it is declared that one-half of the surface vedi of the earth is on the South of Méru, and the other half on the North. All this is very plain if we understand it of the old continent; one half of which is South of the elevated plains of little Bokba'ra, and the other half to the North of it. Then twelve or sisteen lines lower, the author of the same Purana adds, and these two countries South and North of Méru are in the shape of a bow: this is to be understood of their outermost limits or shores.

Another irrefragable proof, that by Méru we are to understand the elevated plains of little Bokbára, are the four great rivers issuing from it, and slowing toward the four cardinal points of the world: three of which are well known to the Hindus. These rivers are the Ganges, the Sitá flowing toward the East, and now called the Hara-Moren: the Bhadrá to the North, and probably the Jenisea in Siberia: the fourth is the Apara-Ganstica, or Western Ganstica, called more generally the Chacshu. It flows toward the West, and its present name among the natives toward its source, is Cocsha, and from the former is derived its Greek appellation of Oxus.

Thus the distance of Méru from the equator is reduced from ninety degrees to forty-five: the distance from the equator at Lancá to Sidd'ha-pura or the North Pole, is reduced from one hundred and eighty to ninety degrees: and every distance from North to South in the Hindu maps, must be reduced in the same proportion.

Thus the snowy mountains to the North of India, and placed in the map in the latitude of fifty-two degrees, are brought down lower into twenty-fix degrees, the half of fifty-two: and they really begin that latitude near Assam; but they are made most erroneously to run in a direction East and West. Strabo descants a great deal upon the direction of

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the mountains to the North of India * from Hipparchus, and Eratosthenes; and concludes by faying that the obliquity of the direction of these
ranges was to be retained in the maps, exactly as it was in the old ones.
The whole reductions are thus exhibited in the following table:

the North Pole,	90°
South and North o	66° parallel of 66° or Polar circle,
128°	64° first range North of Méru,
114 2	57 1 fecond ditto ditto,
104	52 third ditto ditto,
90	45 Meru,
76	38 third range, South of Meru,
65° 8′ -	32° 34' second range ditto,
52 -	26 fnowy mountains.

Instead of the numbers beyond Meru, their complement to ninety is to be used.

Bur as Mêru, or the centrical point between the fources of the four great rivers, is not in the latitude of forty-five degrees, a further correction must take place. No precision can be expected here; but this centrical point cannot be carried further North than thirty-nine, or forty degrees: and the three Northern ranges will fall in the following latitudes.

Me'ru in 40°, the Nila range in 47° Sweta, in 52°, and Sringávan in 59°.

THE summit of Meru is represented as a circular plain of a vast extent,

^{*} STRABO lib. II, page 118 and 1224

furrounded by an edge of hills. The whole is called Ilavratta, or the circle of Ila', and confidered as a celestial Earth, or Swargabbumi': and it is thus called to this day by the people of Tibet, the Chinese, and the Tartars: and like the Hindus they have it in the greatest veneration. worshipping its encircling mountains, whenever they descry them. According to DE GUIGNES, the Chinese call them Tien-c'han, and the Tartars Kiloman, or the celestial mountains. In Tibet they call them Tangra or Tangla, according to F. Cassiano, and Pura'n-Gir, who accompanied the late LAMA to China; and gave me an accurate journal of his march from Tiffoo-Lumbo to Siling, or Sining. Tingri, in the language of the Tartars and Monguls, fignifies the heavens, and even Tibet is called Tibet-Tingri, or the heavenly country of Tibet. The name of Tien-c'han is given by the Chinese to the mountains to the North of Hima: to the Southern part of the circle, they give the name of Sioue-c'han, or fnowy mountains. This range, fays DE GUIGNES, runs along the Northern limits of India toward China, encompassing a large space, enclosed, as it were, within a circle of mountains *. The Southern extremity of this circle is close, according to the present Hindu maps, to the last or Northern range called Nifhad'ba: and this is actually the case with the mountains of Tangrah near Lassa, which is in the interval between the fecond and third range. According to F. Cassiano, the mountains of Tangrab are seen from the summit of Cambala, several days journey to the Westward of Lassa. The famous Pura'n-GIR left them on the left, in his way from Tiffoo-Lumbo to China, at the distance of about twelve coss, and did not fail to worship them. At the distance of seventy-seven coss from the last place, he reckoned Lassa to be about twenty cofs to the right: twenty-three cofs beyond that, he was near

^{*} Histoire des Huns, Vol. II, in the beginning.

the mountains of Ninjink-Tangrá, a portion of that immense circular ridge. In his progress toward the samous temple of Ujuk or Uzuk, called Souk, in the maps, he saw them several times. Close to Ninjink-Tangrá he entered the mountains of Lurkinh, called Larkin in the maps.

VII. This facred mountain, or heaven-like country, made part, it feems, of the facred cosmography of the ancients. The Jews had fome notions of it, and called it the mountain of Gop: they afterwards, with great propriety, gave that name to mount Moriah. The Greeks had their mount Olympus, inaccessible but to the Gods; and Idá-vratta, or Ild-vratta fignifies the circle of ILA, the Earth, which is called also Ilaa. Olympus is derived from the Sanscrit Ilapu, or Ilapus, the holy city of ILA or IDA, thus it appears that Olympus, and Ida were originally the fame. In remembrance of this holy circular space, the Greeks and Romans, when wishing to build a town, marked out a circle, which the first called Olympus, and the others Mundus from the Sanscrit, Manda a circle: they faid also urbs orbis, which is a translation of manda in the language of the Gods, into that of mortals. According to Du PERRON the Parfis are acquainted with fuch a mountain in the center of the world; and fo are the Musulmans to this day. It was not unknown to our ancestors the Scythians; for they are introduced by Justin, saving that their native country was fituated on an elevated spot, higher than the rest of the world, and from which rivers flowed in all directions. The Yews and Greeks foon forgot the original Méru, and gave that name to some favorite mountain in their own country: the first to mount Sion or Moriah. The Greeks had their Olympus, and mount Ida, near which was the city of Ilium, Aileyam in Sanscrit from Ila, whose inhabitants were Meropes, from Merupa; being of divine origin, or descended from the rulers of Meru.

This mountain was even known in Europe to a late period; for it is mentioned in the Nubian geographer under the name of Moregar, from Meru-giri, or Meru-gir, the mountain of Meru. It is described by him as of an immense height, circular, and enclosing several countries within.

This facred mountain is called by divines in Tibet, Righiel: hence Sosthenes as cited by PLUTARCH*, instead of saying that Dionysius, or Bacchus was born on mount Méru, or Meros, says, that he was born on mount Argillus, which he places, it is true, either in Egypt or Ethiopia.

your waiting at the good Trapped to hear the wind hanged

In the fame author we find another ridiculous story about this mountain, under the name of the bed of BOREAS, which he fays was one of the highest peaks of mount Caucasus; and from which Juri-TER hurled SATURN down into Tartarus. Mount Meru is called in the Deccan, the mountain, peak, Cuta of Boreca, or the pole Boureka by Mr. BAILLY, and other French authors. In the Tamuli language, and others in that country, the North is called Valaca, Vallaburram, or Vallapurram, generally pronounced Váraca &c. the North wind Várahada, from the root Vada. In Sanferit Udac is the North, or Uttara. Vada fignifies originally high, great, &c. and the North is called in Sanscrit Uttara, from its being supposed to be the highest point on the surface of the earth. The Greeks thus translated Cuta the peak of Burraca, Badaga, Badaca, by the bed of Boreas, because Koite in Greek fignifies a bed. This mode of translation feems to have been much in use among them; for they translated, Deo-ban, the forest of the Gods, by Theon-painai, Deorumpana. The Atshami, a powerful tribe in the hills near the Ganges by Aslami; or people without mouths.

^{*} PLUTARCH de flum.

THE Bittigi mountains of PTOLEMY, in the Deccan, are in the country of the Badegas, according to European travellers of the seventeenth century; and their language is called Badega. The inhabitants of that country are called in the Tamuli dialect Vaducin; and by others Vaduca, and Vadugas, but generally pronounced Várugás, and Warugas: though in writing they retain the letter D which has a peculiar found between D and R, as in Sanferit. Nonnus in his Dionyfiaes * takes particular notice of mount Miru, and of its circular furface on its fummit. " BACCHUS, favs he, or " CRISHNA divided his forces into four armies; one he fent to the foot of the Northern mountain, with a circular fummit, and furrounded with deep vallies shaded with trees; and from this peak in Caucasus, " iffue many rivers deriving their waters from JUPITER. This was of JUPITER PLUVIALIS, the INDRA of the Hundes, who holds his court on the fummit of Meru, which is called the Swerga, or heaven of INDRA. To this mountain EUHEMERUS gives the name of Olympus, and very properly. It is emphatically called, as we have feen, the circle of Ila, or Ida, or Ildvratta: it might be called also Ilapu, or Ilapus, the city of the Earth, or Ila-pus from Ila or Ilas, which founds exactly like Ilos in Greek. ILA was the fon of VAIVASWATA-MANU, or NOAH, and in his old age, he refigned the empire of the Earth to him; and thus he became Ila-pati, or fija-pati, the Lord sovereign of the earth, and ILus the eldest in Homer, lived near mount Olympus and Ida, in the city of Ilium, inhabited by MEROPES. bed of Boneas, because Reil by Greek my

ILA, Ida, and Ira, in Sanferit, fignify the earth, and these three names are to be found in the Greek language: Ilys, or Ilos, fignifies mud; Era is the earth; and IDA is the name of the Goddess Earth, Idea mater, both

Nonni Digny, lib. XXVII. v. 150, &c.

in Greek, and the ancient Gothic. ATHENAGORAS, as cited by RUDBECK * informs us, that, according to ORPHEUS, water was first, and from it was created Ilys or Earth in an unformed state; ILA or ILA's was the fon of MANU, or NOAH; called also MITRA VARUNA in the Purahas, or the friendly VARUNA, or NEPTUNE. According to HESVCHIUS, ILAON, a hero was the fon of Poseidon, the God of the fea. Jyá in Sanfcrit is the Earth; and in Greek Aia, Ge, or Gaiá, which last fignifies earth, and also duft. Thus, in Sanscrit, Ilá is the earth; and Aileyam is dust and earth also. Aileyam-pus is fynonymous with Ilá-pus, and is the famous city of INDRA. and of the Gods, a beavenly city, which is really a terrestrial beaven. The followers of ALEXANDER mistook a small mountain, between Cabul and the Indus, for the original Meru. This is called Meru-śringa, or the peak of Meru, in the Puranus, and is confidered as a splinter of that holy mountain. There are many other hills thus called in India, besides artificial ones, and the Gods are supposed to come, and sport there occasionally. The Greeks had likewise several holy mountains called Olympus, and Ida. EVHEMERUS calls it Tripbylian Olympus, because S'IVA, with his trident triful, JUPITER TRIPHYLIUS, refides there; and fixed it on its fummit. The Triful is called Tri-phala in the North-West parts of India, from the Sanscrit Tri-phala, which is rendered in Lexicons by Tri-cantaca, or having three points. The word phala was used in the West in that fense, and the obeliscs in the circus were called Phalæ. But as Tri-philios in Greek fignifies three tribes, or families, EVHEMERUS thought proper to translate it thus: befides, he found three nations and cities in the legends of India, which he might conceive countenanced his translation. The abode of Uranus was called Calus or Coilus by the Latians, and he is the same with S'IVA, called the God of Cailás, because he resides on Cailafa, one of the three peaks on the fummit of Meru.

^{*} Volume II, page 466.

Mount Meru is said to be of four different colours, toward the four cardinal points: but the Pauranics are by no means unanimous about them: and the feas, through the reflection of the folar beams from each fide, are of the fame colours. The East, like the Brdhment, is of a white colour; the South, like the Vaifyas, is yellow; Apara the West, like the Chidras, is of a brown, or dark colour; and the North is red like the Cshetris. But in the Haimavatchanda, Meru is faid to be supported, or propped, by four enormous buttreffes : that toward the East, is of pure gold; toward the South, of iron; to the West, of filver; and the buttress to the North, of copper. Thus toward the East it is yellow, to the South red, white to the West, and of a dark brown to the North. There are several other opinions, which I shall pass over, with observing, that the Indian ocean is called Aruhoda or Aruhoda'dbi, or the Red Sea, being reddened by the reflexion of the Solar beams, from that fide of Méru which is of that colour; and PLINY nearly fays the fame thing. # I shall pass over the extravagant accounts of this famous mountain, represented by some as a cone, by others as an inverted one. In Ceylon they fay it is in the shape of an immense round column; in Tibet this column is faid to be square; some of the followers of JINA compare it to a drum, that is to fay, they give it the shape of a barrel. This idea however extravagant, and absurd, prevailed once in the West: as we have feen before.

VIII. THE rivers flowing from Meru are four in number: there are four also in scripture: and we read in the Edda of sour primæval rivers of milk flowing from the teats of the cow Audhumbla. In all these accounts these rivers are only branches of an original one called Swargangá or

Veluine III. 1000 400.

^{*} PLINY, Lib. 6, c. 23.

Mandácini in the Puránas: in the Edda all rivers derive their origin from that called Ilver-gelmer: but in scripture it has no name.

east in the Pareston. But the rivers are very difference. IT rifes from under the feer of VISHNU, at the polar star, and palling through the circle of the moon, it falls upon the fummit of Méru; where it divides into four streams, flowing toward the four cardinal points. According to Genefis, this river went forth, watering the garden of Eden, and of course winding through it: from thence it was parted, and became into four heads. The Pauranies use the same expression, but in a literal sense; and suppose that these four branches pass actually through four rocks, carved into the shape of four heads of various animals. The Ganges running towards the fouth, passes through a cow's head; hence India is called the country of the Cow, its inhabitants are descended according to some from a cow, hence they are styled Gau-vansas, they were originally Go-pálas, or fimply Palhis, or shepherds. To the West is a horse's head, from which flows the chacshu or oxus: and the inhabitants of the countries bordering on it, are of course Asvas, or Turangamas, horses or rather horsemen. According to Scripture the house of TOGARMAH, or THORGAMA, as he is called by CEDRENUS and SYN-CELLUS, traded in the fairs of Tyre, with horses. Toward the East is the head of an elephant, from which flows the river Sita : and to the North is a lion's head, from which flows the Bhadrasama; hence this country, the fame with Siberia, is called the kingdom of the lions: and there was actually a powerful Tartarian tribe called the tribe of the lion.

THE Baudd'bists have no rivers on Méru; but place the origin of them in the South West quarter. The reason of this is, that they place the seven dwipas, or ranges of mountains, with their seas between Méru, and India, or Jambu-dwipa. These seven seas, or rather the river of

milk, winding feven times round Méru, is the original river, which reappears in the South West, and there parting, becomes into four heads of animals, the same as in the Paranas. But the rivers are very different. being the Ganges, the Sind'bu or Indus, the Pabkiu or Brabma'-puera, which forings from the head of an elephant; and for this reason upper Tibet is called the kingdom of the elephant, though there are no elephants there at present. The other river, toward the North, issues from a lion's head, and is called Sita: it is the Oxus. These four rivers fpring from the roots of the tree Jambu, of a most extravagant fize. The Baudd'bifts feem to know but of one tree of knowledge, and granting all our wishes. The Pauranies have many, which they call Calpavricha. There is but one in the Mofaical account, and the Mufulmans acknowledge but one, which they call Tuba: and our ancestors boasted of the famous Ash-tree 2gdrafil. This river of milk, winding round Meru, is not peculiar to the followers of Budd'ha, I remember feeing in one of the Puranas, that the heavenly Ganges winds feven times round Meru: that is between that mountain, and the dwipa of fambu. The Styx, according to mythologists in the West, went nine times round the world; for nine was a favourite number among them; and the ancient Goths reckoned nine worlds, or dwipas. The elevated plains of Meru are perhaps the highest spot, or at least the highest flat in the old continent. Its height toward India, and China, is prodigious : it is not fo confiderable toward the North, and is flill less toward the North-West, where the ascent between the Lithinos-pyrgos or stone-tower, and the station of the merchants trading to China, is by no means very difficult. The Lithinos-pyrgos still exists under the name of Chalfatom or the forty columns; and is famous all over these countries. The station of the merchants is still their place of rendezvous to this day, and is called Tuet-Soleiman, or the throne of Sonomon. The Lithings-

Marbeldan

pyrgos is at the extremity of a small branch jutting out of a range of mountains to the lest of the road, or to the North, and projects toward the South, and ends abruptly in the middle of a plain. Its extremity, consisting of a solid rock, has been cut into a regular shape, with two rows, each of twenty columns. The front part is in a very ruinous condition, and the upper row of columns remains suspended from the top: the columns below answering to them, with their entablature, having been destroyed. It is a most wonderful work, and ascribed by the natives to supernatural agents as usual.

At the distance of a day's march toward the East, is Hostan, or Ostan, called also Oosta, Owsta: there begins a chain of mountains, from which springs a rivulet called Aschon by Strahlenberg: the range itself is called Aidzin by Major Rennell, in his map of the twenty Satrapies of Darius Hystaspes. There ends the country of Bokhara, and begins the empire of China. It is a samous pass, and is naturally the rendezvous of the merchants trading from the West to China. It is desended by a fort, now in ruins, and on a small peak near it, is a very ancient building, like a tower, of a wonderful structure, called the throne of Solomon, near it is a mosque of curious marble. Then for ten days, there is nothing remarkable; the ground gently rising and falling; and you arrive in the vicinity of mines of lead, which is exported all over the country. Two days further, you enter the plains of Castagha, which is one day's journey further.

This account is taken from the journal of a Russian called CZERNI-CHEF, who travelled that way from Bokbara to Cashmir in the year 1780, and was kindly given to me by P. WENDLE at Lucknow. He had been made prisoner on the frontiers of Siberia by the Calmacks, and fold as a flave to the Useck Tartars. His master, who was a merchant, went to trade to Coshghar, Yarc'hand and Cashmir; and, being pleased with his behaviour, gave him his liberty. In company with some Armenians he came to Lucknow, where he was relieved by Sir Evre Coote, whose generosity enabled him to revisit his native country. P. Wendle represented him to me as a plain honest man, and with his master he had learned Persian enough to make himself understood. His route from Congend to Yarc'hand is as sollows:

FROM Cogend to Cucan, two days,

Márbelán, - - one day,

Gherábá and Chálfatoon, two days,

Hoshán país, - - one day,

Lead mines, - - ten days,

To Girrel, and entrance into

the plains, - two days,

Cáshghár, with a mud fort, one day.

In the mountains to the right of the road from Cáshghár, to Yárc'hand, he was told that the Indus had its source. According to the account of some natives of Samarcand, the first part of the route stands thus:

Camba'dam, - 10 cofs, - 10 mining and substance guidance guidance and substance guidance g

THEIR account was from report; for they never had travelled that way. Canbadam seems to be the Candeban in STRAHLENBERG's map: Cocan or

Cucan, the Cqena of the Nubian geographer: and Nemukban is the Namagan of STRAHLENBERG's. The Lithinos-pyrgos feems to be the Cliff or Aacaba of the Nubian geographer, which must have had something very remarkable to be thus noticed. One day's march toward the East is the fort and pass of Assas, Atas, or Etshan. The fort on a high hill was built to put a stop to the incursions of the Turks, from Bagharghar or Tancabas, whose capital city was thirty-seven days march to the Eastward. From Assas to Tobbot, there were ten days march, according to the same geographer, who meant Cáshgbár by it, perhaps, because the caravans to, and from Tibet met there; and Mr. Danville is of the same opinion. In Ulug-Beg's tables, and in the Ayin-Acberi in the printed copies, we read Rus instead of Oush: the distance between Cogend and Oush is about one hundred and thirty miles, which agrees tolerably well with the above account.

Between the ranges to the North and South of Méru, the Pauranies place two other ranges of mountains; one on each fide of Méru, and in a North and South direction. The Western range called Gand'hama'dana, does really exist, and answers to the Comædi mountains of Ptolemy, called also Cumuda in the Puranas. But the Eastern range called Mályavan, and answering to the former, exists but in the imagination of the Pauranies; symmetry certainly required it, and this was enough for them.

IX. In the Vayu Purana, we are told, that the water or Ogha of the ocean, coming down from heaven like a stream of Amrita upon Méru, encircles it, through seven channels, for the space of \$4,000 Yojanas, and then divides into four streams, which, falling from the immense height of Méru, rest themselves in four lakes, from which they spring over the mountains through the air, just brushing the summits. This wild ac-

count was not unknown in the West; for this passage is translated, almost verbally, by PLINY, and Q. CURTIUS, in speaking of the Ganges. Cum magno fragore ipsius statim fontis Ganges erumpit, et magnorum montium juga recto alveo stringit, et ubi primum mollis planities contingat, in quodam lacu bospitatur. The words in Italics are from PLINY*, the others from CURTIUST.

THESE four lakes are called Aruhoda in the East; Manafa in the South; in the West Sitoda: the fourth, in the North is called Maba-Bbadra.

FROM Mána-Sarovara, or, according to the vulgar pronunciation, Mán-faraur, the lake of Mána or Mánafa, issues the Ganges. According to Pura'n-GIR, who accompanied the late Lam a to China, and had seen that lake in his way from Lassa to Ládac, it is called in Tibet, Chu-Mápanh, or the lake of Mápanh. In the Lam a's map it is called Mapama: but Pura'n-GIR, a well informed man, assured me that its true name was Mápanh. It was probably written at first Mapam by Portuguese Jesuits, in whose language the letter M, at the end of a word, has a nasal sound, as it had in Latin, and is to be sounded like the letter N at the end of a word in French.

This lake is constantly called Mán-Saraur by pilgrims; but this appears, according to the Pauránics, to be another, a great way to the North: this they call Bindu-Sarovara, or the lake formed by the Bindu, or drops of water falling from the hair of Maha-Deva, when he received the holy stream, from on high, on his head. There is certainly some confusion in the Puránas about Mána-Sarovara; and we must then

^{*} PLINY VI. c. 180.

[†] CURTIUS VIII. c. 9°.

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acknowledge two lakes of that name: one on the fummit of Méru, and she other to the South of it: for the facred books cannot be reconciled otherwife. In that case Bindu-sarovara, mentioned but seldom, is the same with the Southern Mana-sarovara. The great Mána-sarovara, which proceeded from the heart of BRAHMA, is on Méru, and the sour great rivers issue from it: but from this Man-saraur, South of Méru, the Ganges is the only river issuing. It is of course the same with Bindu-saraur, or the lake Mápanh of those of Tibet.

According to Puran-Gir, this lake is fituated on an elevated plain covered with long grass, to the North of which is a conical hill called Kbyem-lung, and dedicated to Maha-Deva; and which is inserted in the map of the Lamas, but without name, and with two roads ending there. It is one of the Southern peaks of mount Cantaifeb, which rises above the rest to an amazing height. A small stream, rising behind the subordinate peak of Kbyem-lung, is considered by pilgrims as the source of the Ganges. There ended the survey of the Lama mathematicians; and the countries to the South, and South West were added asterwards, from the report of natives. During the rains the lake is said to overflow, and several streams rush down from the hills: but they soon dry up, even the sacred stream itself not excepted.

According to Pura'n-Gir, and other pilgrims from India, this extenfive plain is furrounded on all fides by peaks, or conical hills, but very irregular: toward the North they rife gradually, and a little beyond the fugar loaf hill of Kbyem-lung begins the base of Cantaisch. Toward the East the range of peaks is very low, forming only a serrated crest. To the South this crest is much higher than toward the other cardinal points: but, to the North, the mountains beyond the crest are very high. The Southern crest is very near the banks of the lake. The lake itself forms an irregular oval, approaching to a circle, but the two inlets or smaller lakes to the North are said not to exist, for Puran-gir's route was to the North of the lake, and close to its shore, and he did not see them. Pilgrims are five days in going round the lake, and the place of worship, or Gombah, is to the South. It consists of a few huts, with irregular steps down the banks of the lake. The Ganges issues from it, and during the dry season its stream is hardly five or six inches deep. It does not go through the lake called Lanken in the maps; it slows to the South East of it, at the distance of two or three coss. This lake is called in India the pool of Rayna: and because he is the Lord of Lanca; his pool is called the lake of Lanca, or Lanken in the maps.

The lake of Man-saraur is mentioned by PLINY, as I observed before, and it is probably the same, that is mentioned by CTESIAS, who says it was eight hundred sadia in circumference. M. Polo describes it as to the West of Tibet, but does not mention its name. It is noticed by P. Monserrat, who accompanied the Emperor Acbar in his expedition to Cabul in the year 1581. He calls it Mánsaruor, and, from the report of pilgrims, places it in thirty-two degrees of latitude North; and about three hundred and fifty miles to the North East of Serhind. The first European who saw it, was P. Andrada in the year 1624: and in the years 1715, and 1716, it was visited by the missionaries P. Desiderius, and Emanuel Treyer.

THE Burmahs call this lake Anaudát, and place four heads of animals to the four cardinal points, from which spring the four great rivers; and thus in the opinion of the divines of Tibet and Ava, this lake is the real Mán-saraur. From this description one might be induced to suppose

this lake to be the crater of a Volcano, but much larger than any now existing, Cresias says that a liquid matter like oil was swimming on its surface, and was carefully collected by the inhabitants, and M. Polo adds, that pearls were found there. The pilgrims I have consulted knew nothing either of this precious oil or of the pearls. They shewed me however small pebbles, some, like pease, others as big as a pigeon's egg, which they told me were found on the shores of that lake, and that pilgrims used to take a few of them as relics, to give to their friends: and I was presented accordingly with some. They are in general as transparent as the purest chrystal, and I should suspect them to be pieces of chrystal, broken and rounded by mutual attrition, occasioned by the motion of waters.

To the West of this lake springs the Sita-Cant'ba', probably the Sitocatis of Arrian. It is called also the Miech'ba'-Ganga', or impure Ganges: and is supposed by some to be the same with the 'Satlaj or Sitloda' in the Panjab; this erroneous idea seems to originate from its being called by pilgrims Sitloda'; but its true name is Sitoda', nearly synonymous with Sita-cant'ba'. The samous Jaya-sinha, Rajab of Jaypoor, sent people as far as the Cow's-mouth, and they sound that the Sitoda', after slowing for a considerable space toward the West suddenly turned to the South, came within two miles of the Cow's-mouth, and fell into the Ganges about sixteen coss lower.

To the East or para is the Aruñoda lake, literally the water or lake of Aruña or Dawn: and it is called to this day Orin-nor, or the lake of Orin, and from it flows the yellow river, the Sita of the Purañas, called also Para-Gandica or Eastern Gandica.

APAREN'A, or to the West, is the Sitoda lake from which issues the Apara-

Gandica or Western Gandica, called also Chacfou in the Puranas, Oxus by the Greeks, and Cocsha by the natives. This lake at the source of the Oxus, is noticed in fome maps: by the natives it is called Cul or the lake; and by Persian authors Div-faran; according to Sir W. Jones, in his life of NADIR-SHAH; Deva-fara, in Sanfcrit, fignifies the lake of the Gods, or the divine lake. According to them it is near the mountains of Andemas from the Sanserit And ba-Tamasa, or And b-Tamas: both words imply darkness; but being joined together, imply it in a superlative degree; and it is the name of one of the divisions of hell. On their summit is the Belur, or dark country of the maps. The Ant'hema mountains are called Sacranthema by BERNARD GOEZ. An intelligent and well informed native of Biducshan, and royal messenger of that country for forty years, under AHMED and ZEMAN-SHAH, informed me that Ser-Anthema is the true name; that fer or fereb fignifies in his country, end, limit, or border, and appears to be the name of a place near the Anthema mountains, as Ser-Hind, or on the borders of Hind. This lake is faid to be three days journey in circumference. The Oxus does not fpring immediately from it but at the distance of fifteen miles to the West it emerges from the ground. The Cocsha is the facred stream which fanctifies the waters of the Oxus; but by no means the main stream, which is more to the North. It is so with regard to the Ganges, the facred stream of which is called Alaca-nanda, and is but a fmall river, the fource of which is twelve coss to the North East of Badarica frama, and, I believe, about 130 miles from Hardwa'r. From the lake to the hills to the Eastward is an extensive plain, called Sárágh-Chopawn, or the plains of Chopawn. There are four places there mentioned by Goez, Ciarciunar or Char-Chunar the four cedars, like the four cedars, or pines perhaps, near Cashmir, called Char-Chunar also: these four trees no longer exist*.

^{*} Mr. Forster renders the word Chunar by plane trees in his account of Cashmir, and he is perhaps right.

Sarcil was explained to me, by Camber-Ali, the king's messenger, by Sereb-cul; or Ser-cul close, or on the borders of the lake: and Serpanil by Ser-pamer. These mountains are called in the Purasias Cumuda, the Comædi of Ptolemy, and Anjana or Cristona the black mountains. Camber-Ali gave me a dreadful account of them from report, for he never saw them, but at a distance.

THE fourth lake in the North is called Maba-Bhadra, which is probably the lake Saifans, from which flows the river Irtiz. As the epithet Maha implies a great lake, I am some time inclined to suppose it to be the same with the lake Baikal; but it is too much out of the way: though I must confess, that its distance can be no objection with the Pauránics. Besides, the Baikal lake is called to this day Sweto-more, or the holy and facred sea, and the country about it, and all along the Ergone, or Argon, is confidered as holy by the Hindus, who occasionally visit this facred spot. Bell in his travels mentions his seeing a Hindu there from Madras. STRAHLENBERG faw another at Tabolfk, who, it feems, had fettled there. I have feen two who had visited that country, one was called Arees'wara, whom I mentioned in my effay on mount Caucasus. The four facred rivers springing from the Man-farovara, according to the divines of Tibet, are the Brabma'-putra, the Ganges, the Indus, and the Sitá. The Ganges is the only one that really issues from that lake, and if the three others do, it must be through subterranean channels; and such communications, whether real or imaginary, are very common in the Puráfias. The Sitá may be the Sitodá, Sitlodá, supposed to communicate with the Satlaj or Satodara, thus called from its hundred branches or bellies, through which it is supposed to fall into the sea.

THE Indus was supposed formerly to have its source not far from Man-

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farovara, which P. Monserrar places in thirty-two degrees of latitude North; and the fource of the Indus in latitude 32° 15', the difference of longitude between the fource and the lake 1° 45'.

THE difference of longitude between Delbi, and Manafarovara is according to Monserrat 5° 2'. This places Mánfarovara in 82° 2' of longitude, and both its longitude and latitude are remarkably correct: but what is more furprising, the good father was ignorant that the Ganges issued from it. Abul Fazil places the source of the Indus nearly in the same latitude with Cashmir, but eighteen degrees to the Eastward. The Indus has its source four or five days journey to the North-West of Yarchand according to Czernicher: it runs thence in a direction South South East toward Ládae, and within two days journey of it: nay, merchants, who trade from India to Cáshgár, say it can be done in one day. The Indus then turns immediately toward the West, taking an immense sweep round Cashmir; and the place near Ládae, where it turns suddenly to the West, ward, has been mistaken for its source.

X. The followers of Jin A in the Trai-locya-derpaña represent the old continent, as confisting of two concentric dwipas, of the same superficial extent. They call the whole world Arai, or Adai-dwipas, literally the two and half Islands. The two first dwipas are Zambu in the center, and Dhátuci: and they are divided by an intermediate sea. The whole is surrounded by the ocean, in which are many islands called in general Antaca or Anta-mai-dwipas, or the islands at the anta, (end, or extremity) of the world. The first of them is the White Island, and the last Swayambhuva-dwipa, called Pushcara in the Puráñas.

BEYOND this is the half of Pufbeara, the 'Swarka-Chumi of the Purakas,

which furrounds the world, as well as the mountain of Mánafottara called Locáloca by the Pauráńics. Beyond this circular range is the other half of Pushcara: but as it is out of the world, it is not included in their system of geography.

In the division of the old Continent into nine parts by the Pauranics, Bharata is erroneously introduced: it should be Nábabi. For Agnid'hra, the son of Priyavrata, the eldest son of Adima, had nine sons; called Naba'hi Ila'vratta, Cimpurusha, Harivarsha, Cetuma'la, Bhadra'sva, Raman'aca, Hiran'maya, and Curu. Thus we read in Sanchoniathon that Phos, Phur, or Phlox, answering to Agni'dhra, begat sons of vast bulk, whose names were given to the countries they inhabited.

PRIVAVRATA had ten fons, as we have feen before; among whom was AGNID'HRA. Three withdrew into forests; and the seven remaining were appointed to rule over the seven great divisions of the world, called the seven dwipas. The great grandson of Agnid'hra, called Bharata, gave his name to the country south of Himálaya, which, under that denomination, was originally confined to India; but it is now made to extend from sea to sea, along the range of the Snowy mountains. This we are told in general in the Puránas: but it is by no means the case, as it will appear from the particulars, that Bbárata, forms a semi-circle round Méru, beginning in the West in sity-two degrees of latitude, or nearly so: being, as it is declared in the Puránas, in the shape of a Gow.

To King BHARATA, MAHADEVA gave eight sons, and one daughter called ILA, or Cumari, emphatically the Maiden. A new division of the Earth took place according to some; but the general opinion is that it was only a partial one. Be this as it may, it appears that, out of the

ten divisions of the old continent, Bharata, included nine; Curu, in the north, being excepted and lest out.

According to the Prabháfa-ébanda, the names of these nine ébandas or sections are, reckoning from the East toward the West, Indra-dwipa or Gand'barva-chanda, Caseru, Tamrapurteah, Gabbastimán, Cumáricá India, Naga-chanda, Saumya, Varuna-ébanda, and Gand'barva-ébanda again. In the Revá-éhanda, their names are thus exhibited; Gand'harva, Caseru, Tamrapartii, Gabbastimán, Cumáricá or India, Nága, Saumya, Varuna, Chandra-dwipa.

In the same section we find another variation; Gand'barva, Caseru, Tamrapatra (erroneously for Tamra-purn'ah), Shilastica, Cumdricá India, Bhága-dwipa (probably for Nága), Saumya, Varuña and Chandra-dwipa. The first and the last divisions are in general called Gand'barva-dbanda, being supposed to be the abode of the Gods, with their usual retinue of heavenly musicians. Through the seven remaining divisions, seven rivers are said to flow. They have a common source in the lake from which issues the Ganges. To the East are, the Naliní, slowing through Caseru; the Pávaní, through Tamrapurnáb; Hládiní, through Gab-hastimnā. To the West, the Sitá or Jaxartes slows through the country of Varuña; the Chacshu, through Saumya; and the Sind'bu, through Nága-c'handa. Between these, in the middle, is the Ganges, which slows through Cumáricá-c'handa or India:

In the Váyu-Purána, the origin of these seven rivers is thus described: North of Cailása is the Gaura mountain, at the soot of which is the Bindu-sarovara, or lake with golden sand. There went BHAGIRAT'HA to fetch the Ganges, called Tripat'ha-ga, because it goes through three paths, or channels.

THERE he obtained the Ganges from MAHA-DEVA, which, dividing into feven streams or paths, is called from that circumstance Saptad'bá. The Sita goes through countries inhabited by the Sirind bras, the Cuntalas with long hair, the Chinas, for this is confidered as the native country of the Chinese; the Barbaras, Yavasas, Druhas, Tusharas living among snow, Culindas, Ancas, Locavaras. The Sitá goes toward the West, and falls into the fea of falt water.

THE Chacfbu flows through the countries of the Chinamanus, or Chinamen, Tanganas, Sarva-Gálicas, Sand'bras, Tusháras; Tumpacas, read Lumpacas, Pabvas, Daradas, Sacas or Saxons.

THE Sind'bu goes through the Daradas, Cás míras, Gánd'háras or Gandari, Yavanas or Greeks of Baelria, Hridas, Rhotas, the Rhodoes of the Baffarics of Dionysius*, 'Sivapauras (living in the town of 'Sivapura, or Sheopoor). Indrabásas Vadantis, Visarjayas, Saind bavas (living on the banks of the Sind'hu', Rand'hraca'racas, Brahmatas, Bhirarobacas, Suna'-muc'bas, Urdd'hamanus. The Ganges flows through the Gand'harvas, Cinnaras, Yuchas, Rácshasus, Vidyad'haras, Uragas (or large snakes; these are tribes of demons good and bad in the hills), Cálapagramacas, Páradas, Svigañas Svasas Cirátas, Pulindas, Curavas in Curu about Tanebsar, Sam-Bharatas, Panchálas, Cási or Benares, Matsyas, Magad'has (or South Babar), Brahmottaras, Angas, Bangas, Calingas, Tamraliptas (or Tamlook), Sam-Bharata or Sammarata, as pronounced in the spoken dialects, fignifies a native of India: and I am told, that it is used, though very seldom, in that sense. The Hlading or Brahmaputra goes through the Nishadas, Racshasas, Upa-Bangas (or near Bengal), the Dhivaras (or boatmen), Rishicas, Nilamuc'has, Ceralas, OshtaSwarnas, Cirátas, Cálodaras, Vivarnas, Gumáras, Swarnabhufbitas (living near Swarnagam, or Sonargaum near Dhaces). He si serve so smessil nevel

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The Pa'vani flows through countries inhabited by the Apat'bas, or whose country is without paths, then through the large lake of Indrad'-byumna, through the C'harpat'bas, living near difficult passes, the Indra-sambupat'bas, the Mad'byanod'ba'nas, the Namascaras, the Gusa-pravara-nas, then falls into that sea, in which is Indra-dw'pa, and which joins the sea of salt. The Nalini goes through the Tomaras, remarkable for their quivers, as implied by their name, through the Hansa-margas, or those living near the paths of the Anseres or water sowls, that is to say, among marshes; through the Sa-bun-bacas, or who seem to repeat incessantly the words bong bang like the Chinese, then, after forcing its way through many hills, it goes through the Carnapravaranas, or wearing ear rings, then through the Asva-muc'bas, horse-saced, Sicatas, parrot-saced, Purvatamanus or hill-men, Vidyád'baras, and falls into the Ma-bodad'hi, or great sea.

THE Pavam is probably the river of Pá or Bhá, and called Pa-chu or water of Pá before it enters China, where it is called Kin-sha-kyang, and Yangtse-kyang. The lake of Indrad byumna is probably that, which covered once the province of Yu-quang, and was drained up in great meafure by one of the Emperors of China; some extensive lakes in the lower grounds still remain. The epithet of Namascárás is well adopted to the Chinese, from their polite and ceremonious behaviour, with bowing &c.

THE dwipa of Indra, a very large island, appears to be Japan: for it is described as the island of the rising sun, which is the meaning of the words Japan or Gepuen. The Nalini, called Sind'bu, or Burra-Attack by

pilgriens from India, is the Hoang-bo or Cara-Moran. It is called the great Attock or forbidden river, because strangers are seldom permitted to go beyond it. This forbidden river is noticed by PLINY* though he does not mention its name. It was equally forbidden to those, who came from the West on the part of the Romans negotiatores nostri, or who came from India. For there were two roads frequented by merchants, according to PTOLEMY, from the metropolis of China; one leading to Bastra, and the Western countries, and the other to Palibothra and India.

The learned in Napal consider the Brabmáputra to be the Hládiní of their sacred books. There came to Benares, about nine years ago, a most respectable native from that country, called Bhagirat'ha: being very old, he wished to die on the banks of the Ganges at the holy place of Cási. He had been to China and savored me with a short account of his journey. There, he says, that the Burrampooter is the same with the Hládini, and that the Hara-moren is the Naliní. This river, says he, is also called by Hindu pilgrims, the Burrah-attaca, or great Attock or sorbidden river. He had promised to savor me with surther particulars; but soon after the venerable old man breathed his last on the banks of the Ganges.

The dwips of Chandra in the West will appear, in the course of this work, from the Purans to include the British isles: but as it is considered here as one of the nine grand divisions of the Empire of Bharata, the Pauranics must have comprehended under that appellation a more extensive region altogether, than the British isles, and including the Western parts of Europe, under the name of Liguria or Llocgyr, which I shall show hereafter to be synonymous with the country of Chandra or Lunus, em-

phatically called *Urúpa* or the Lord of the *Zodiac*. The King of the dwipa of Chandra being confidered as a vassal, was occasionally summoned to appear before his Lord Paramount, with all the Kings of the world in *India*, at least according to the Revá-chanda, a section of the Scanda-purána.

SECTION II.

LIST OF MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, AND COUNTRIES, FROM THE PURANAS AND OTHER BOOKS.

I. In the Brahma'n'da-Pura'na * we have the following lift of the mountains, rivers, and countries in the Empire of BHA'RATA.

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To the East it is bounded by the tribes of Ciratas, or shepherds, living in the hills to the North and North East of Bengal; to the West, by the Yavanas, or Greeks of Bactriana. The four great tribes live in the middle, and there are seven principal ranges of mountains, or cula parvatas: Mahendra, toward Madras, Malaya, on the coast of Malabar, Sabya, toward Poonah, Suctimán, Riesha, Vindhya (the Bind hills), and Pariyátra.

THE inferior mountains are Mandara, Vaihara, Dardura, Colábula, Safurafa, Maináca, Vidhyuta, Sriparvata, Cutuca, Cúlasaila, Tungaprasiba, Crifbnágiri, Godhana, Hari-parvata, Pufhpagiri, Jayanta, Raivátaca, near the Revá, or Narmada river. In these mountainous countries live the Aryya Mlech'has, or foreigners; and all these mountains are in the Deccan.

^{*} Section of the Earth.

THE principal rivers are Gungā, Sirābu, Sarasvati, Satadru or Satlaj, Chandrabhaga or Chinab, Yamuna, Jumna, Sarayú or Sarjew, Airavati er Ravy, Vitasta or Bidasta, Vipasa or Beya, Devica, Cubu, Gomati, D'hutpapa, Báhuda, Drishadvatí, Causici or Cosa, Vritiyá, Nirvira, Gandaci, Ieshu, Lohitá: all these flow from Himavate or the snowy mountains.

VED ASMRITI, Vedavati, Vratragbni, Sind'hu, Varánsá, Chandaná, Sadánírá, Mahí near Cambay, Párá, Charmanvati Vidisá, Vetrávati, or Betwá river, Siprá near Ujjain, Avanti: all these rivers flow from the mountains of Páriyátra. Soná, Narmadá, Sumabádrumá, Mandácini, Dasarhá from Chitracútá, Tamasá, Pippalá Sroní, Caratoyá, Currátyá, Pisáchicá Chitotpalá, Vipásá, Jambulá, Váluvábiní, Sinerajá, Suttimatí, Matcuná, Tridivá, Cramá: These are born from the Riesba mountains.

THE Tapi Tapti; Payoshi, Nirvind byá, Madrá, Nishad ha, Vehavá, Vaitarahí mear Cuttac, Siníbáhu, Cumudvatí, Nípá, Mahá-gaurí, Durgá, Antabáilá; all these spring from the Vind hya mountains. Godávarí, Bhímarat hí, Crishná, Vehu, Vanjulá, Tungabhadrá, Suprayogá, Caverí: all these come from the Sahya mountains. Critamálá, Tamraparhí, Carmajá, Puhyalávatí, from the Malaya mountains. Trisámá, Rituculyá, Dracshalá, Tridivá, Lángúliní, Vanáad hará: These proceed from the mountains of Mahendra.

Rishica', Sucumári, Mandagá, Mandavábíni', Cripá, Palásini', from the mountains of Suctimán; all these rivers flow immediately into the ocean. This is not true, for the Sarasvoti', Yamuná, Gomati', &c. fall into the Ganges.

THEN follow a lift of countries: the names are in the plural, and of:

course signify the inhabitants of these countries. Curu near Tahnesar, Panchala, Salva or Salava, Jangala, Surasena, the Surasena of Arrian, Bhadracara, Bod'ha, Pat'heswara, Vatsa, Cifrishta, Culya, Cuntala, Casicosala or Benares, Tilinga, Magad'ha, Vrica: these are in Mad'hyadesa or middle of India.

In the North of the Sabya mountains rifes the Godáveri: on the banks of the Crisbná, are extentive and famous districts: there is the mountain Govadd'hana made by Indra; through Ra'ma's pleasure it is Swerga or heaven. There Bharadwa'ja built a town, with gardens and pools. Váblica Balk, Vátad'hána, Abhíra or Pallis, in Candeish; Cálatoyaca, Aparita, Súdra, Pahwava, Charma-c'handaca, probably the Charmæ of Pliny, Camboja, Cuj or Coj, Rob-Coj or Arachosia, Darada Dardæ Dawurd, Barbara, or Varvara Priyalaucica, Pína, Tushára, or snow country, Babyatodara; there live the descendants of Atri and Bharadwa ja; Prast'bala, Caśeruca, Lampácast'hánaca, those who live near the sthán of Lampaca or Lameeb now Lamgan; Pídica, Jubuda, Apaga, Alimadra, there live Cirátas or shepherds; Tomara, Hansamárga, Cáśmíra, Tángana, Chúlica, Bábuca in the Váyu-Purána, Abuca, Purña-darva.

To the East are the And'braváca, Sujaraca, Antaragiri within the hills, Bábirgiri without the hills, Plavangava, Angeya Malada or Málda, Málavarti, Brabmottara, Pravijaya, Bhárgavángeya, Art'baca, Prágjyotisha now Gohati in Assam, Munda, Videha the country of the famous Janaca; Tamraliptica or Tamlook, Mála, the Malli and mount Mallus of Plany toward the Ganges now Mal-bhoom in Midnapoor, Magad'ha or South Bahar, Govind'ha. Toward the South is Pándya, the country of Pandion, Cerala, Cerala-desa, Chailya or Chola Coromandala, Culya Setuca, Mushica, Cumána, Mahá-Rash-tras Mahá-rattas, Máhishica, Calinga, Abhíra or Pallis, Vaishica, Atavya

living in the middle of thick forests, Vara, Pulinda, Vind'bya-murvica, Vaidarbba'or Burra-Nagpoor, Dandaca, Paunica, Maunica, Asmaca, Bhogavard'bana, Nairnica, Guntala, And bra now Telingana, Udbbida, Nalaca, Alica.

THE next are in front of the Vind'bya mountains: Suryacara, Colavana, Durga, Calitaca, Pukya, Surala, Rupafa, Tapafa, (these are probably the Tabassi of Ptolemy; for, in the Dekan, they pronounce that word Tabasa,) Surasita, Carancara, Nasicya, Antara-Narmada within the Narmada, Bhanu-Cach'ba, Mabeya, Sasvata.

THE following are behind the mountains of Vind'bya: Málava, Carusha, Mecala along the Narmadá called also Mecalá, Utcala, or Orissa, Utcamárasia, Desárasia, (the country of Dosarene in the Periplus and Ptolemy,)
Bboja, Cishcind'haca, Tosala, (the Tosale of Ptolemy, and Jesual of European travellers,) Cosala, Traipura or Tipperah, Vaidica, Tumura, Tupura, Shatasura weat Naishad'ha-desá, Anaya, (in the Váyu Purása, Anuya,) Tundicera,
Vitihotra, D'hananjaya.

THERE are also other countries called Nigarbara for Nazarbara, called Nakierbur in the Ayin Acberi near Cábul, Hansamárga, the Huńsa, probably the white Hunni of Cosmas Indopenses in the fixth century, and who inhabited the upper part of the Panjáb. Their chiefs were called Gollas, and it is related that once their army besieging a city, drank up all the water round it: as water is very scarce in that country, it is very possible. Darva, Sabanbaca, Trigarta, Málava, Ciráta Támasa.

II. In the Vará-sanbita, an astronomical treatife, there is a more complete list. In Mad'hyam, middle or inland country, are the following

tribes: Bhadra, Arimeda, Mandavya, Salava, Nipa, Udjibana, Meru, Vatfa, Ghosba, Yamuna, Sarasvata, Matsa or Matsya, all these are Mad byamica or in the midland Mathuraca, Apa-Jaotifha, D'barmaranya, Surafena, Gauragriva with white necks, Uddebica, Paridya, Gudásvatt'ba, Pánchála, Saceta or Oude and Benares, Canca, Curu, Cálacoti, Cucura, Páriyátra (faid, to be at the fource of the Chumbul,) in other Puranas it is called Paripatra; Naga, Audumbara, Capishtala, Gajahwaya. Toward the East, are the Anjana, Vrishabba, D'hwaja, Padma, Mályavatgiri, Vyágbra-muc'ha or Tygerfaced, Subma, Cárvata, Chándrapura, Suryacarana, C'bafa, Magad'ba, Sivirgiri, the mountains of the Siviras (These no longer exist as a nation: their name in the spoken dialects is Suir. They are said to have been very powerful once in the Gangetic provinces, as well as the Bhar tribe, who no longer form a body) the Siviras or Sibiras are the Sabiri of NONN Mit'hila or North Bahar, Samatata, Undra, Afvavadana or horse faced, Danturaca, Prácjyotisha the Laubitya river, Csbiroda-Samudra, the sea or lake of milk, Purushada or Cannibals, Udaya-giri, Bhadra, Gaudaca those of Gauda or Gaur, (the Corygazus of PTOLEMY,) Paundra, Utcala, Casi, Mecala, Ambashta (the Ambasta of ARRIAN,) Ecapada or single footed, Tamraliptica or Tamlook, Cosalaca called Tosala-Cosalaca in the preceding list, Vardd'hamana or Burdwan.

In the South East is Cosala, Calinga, Banga, Apa-Banga, Jalara, Anga, Svalica, Vidarbba, Vatsa, And'bra, Vaidica, Urddhva-cánta, (with high necks,) Vrisha, Nálicera or Náricela, Sumatra according to the Vribat-cat'bá, Charma-dwípa, Vind'hyántaravásina, (living in the interior parts of the Vind'hyan mountains,) Tripura or Tipperah, Smasrud'hara, Hema-cúta, Vyálagríva, (with necks like snakes,) Mahágríva, (long necks,) Cishcind'ha, Cántácass'hali, Nishádha-ráshtra, Purica, Dasárana, Nagnaparna, Sabara, a wild race.

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In the South is Lanca, or the peninfula of Malaca, Calajina, Sauricarna, Tálicata, Girinagara, Malaya the Malabar coast, Daradura, Mabendra, Málindra, Méru-Cach'ba, Carcota, Tanca, Vanaváfi, Sivica, C'bahicara, Cauncafea, Abhira, Acara, Vena, Avantaca, Dafapura, Gonardda, Ceralaca, Carhata, Mahatavi, Chittra-Cuta, Naficya, Collagiri, Chola, Crauncha-dwipa'b, (the islands of the water fowls or Lacca-dives,) Fatad bara, Caverya, Rishyamuc'ha, Vaidurya, Sanc'ba, or islands of shells, (they are more generally called Barata and Barola; bence cowries are called Baratas, because they come from that country.) Muctatri Varicbara, D'barmabattana-dwiba, an island opposite to D'barmapattan. (D'bramapattan was formerly a place of some note between Calicut and Cananor.) Ganarastra, Crisbna-Vellara, Pisica, Suryadri, Cufumanaga, Tumbavana, Carmaneyaca, Yamvodad'hi the sea of Yama, or Southern sea, Tapasasrama-Risbica, Canchibura, Canjivoram, China-pattana or Madras, Devárshica, Sinhála or Cevlon, Rishabha, Bala-deva-pattana, or Maha Balibura, now Mavelivoram, Dandacanana, Timingala, Saná-bhadra, Cach'ba, Cunjaradari Tamraparni.

In the South West is Pabroava, Camboja, Arachosia, Sind'hu, Sauvira, Valdamuc'ha, Amba, Ambashta, Campilla, Narimuc'ha, Anartta, Phesiagiri, Yavana-mărgana, (those who live toward the passes leading into the country of the Yavanas, or Greeks of Bractriana, or the frontiers of the Yavanas, Carsaprávarsa, Sabaraca, Súdra, Barbara, Ciráta Chanda, Cravyâc'hya, Abbira, Chanchúca, Hemagiri, Sind'hu-Calaca, Raivátaca, Suráshtra, Bádara, Dravida. These are in the great sea, or near the great sea, Masimán, Meghván, Vanogha, Cshurárpasia, Astagiri, Apara'ntica, at the end of the West, Sánatica perhaps Sintica, Haibaya the Persians, Prasastádri, Uccána, Panchanada, or Panjáh, Rámatá, Párata, Táracshica, Jringa, Vaisya, Canaca, Saca, Nirmaryádamlech'has. These are impure tribes

living on the borders. In the North West, Mandavya, Tushara, Tala, Hala, Madra, Asmaco, Culu, Talaba, (Strirajab) or Amazones, Nrisinbavana, C'basta, Venumati, Phalaguluca, Aguruba, Maruba, Turuca, Charmaranga, Ecavilochana, (one-eyed,) Sulica, Dirghagriva or with long necks.

To the North, is Cailása, Himaván, Vasumángiri, D'hanushmán, Crauncha Méru, Uttara-Curu with the epithet of Cshudramína, or North Curu under the lesser Fish, or the lesser Bear.

CAICAYA Cabul, Vasati, or Yamuna, Bhogaprasta or Hardwar, Arjunayana, Agnid'bra, Adarsa, Antaradwisi, the Doab between the Ganges and the Jumna, Arigartta, Tahora, Turagama or Asva-muc'ba, Cesad'bara, Chipitnastica, Daseraca, Vatad'bana, Sarad'bana, Tacsha sila in the Vr'hat-catba, (these are called Tacshila, the Taxila of the Greeks, and the ruins of which are to be seen between the Vetasta and Indus,) Pushcalavata, Cainataca, Cantad'bana, Ambara, Madraca, Malava, Paulava, Cach'ba, Danda, Pingalaca, Mahabala, (now Manbal in the mountains to the North of the Panjab,) Huha, (the Hunnoi of Cosmas,) Cobala, Sataca, Mandavya, Bhutapura, Gand'bara, Yasovati, Hematala, Rajanya, Cachara, Gavya, Yaud'beya, Sameya, Syamaca, Cshemad'burtta.

To the North East (it should be to the North West,) is Meruca, (the mount Meros of the Greeks,) Nashta-rájya, Páshupala, Cira, Caśmira, Abhisara (which includes part of Cáśmira to the North West: this was the kingdom of Abisares; by Abbisara they oftener understand Cáśmira,) Darada, Tangańa, Culúta, Sauritya, Vana-rashtra. Brahma-pura, Dárvada, Amaravána, Rájya-Ciráta, Chína, Caulinda, Palava, Lola, Jatád'bara, Cunaha, C'hasa, Ghosha, Canchica, Eca-charna, Suvarna-bhu, Vasud'bana, Divishta, Pauvara, Chívara, Nivasana, Trinetra, (or with three eyes,) Munjádri, Soma,

Gand'barva. Then Pánchála, Mágad'bica Cálinga, Avartta, Anartta or Dwáraca; Sind'bu, Sauvira, Hárbaura, Madréfa.

To the South of the Jambuna, Prayaga or Allababad, Narmada, Ardd'ha-Soná the Sone, (which is confidered as the half of the Narmadá,) Undra, Vanga, Subma, Calinga, Váblica, or Balk, Saca, Yavana, Magad'ba, Sabara Prágjyotiska in Assam, China, Camboja Arachosia, Mecala, Ciráta, Vicata, Babiranta-Saila, (within and without the hills,) Pulinda, Dravira, (all thefe are South of the Yamuna,) Chamba, Udumbara, Causambi, Vedi, Vand'byátavi, (the forests of the Vind'byan hills,) Calinga, Pundra, Golangula, Sriparvata, Vardd'haman, or Burdwan, Jeshumati, Tascara, (a tribe of robbers,) Párata, Cantára, Gopavíja, Tushad'bánya, Catuca, Taru-Canaca, (or golden tree) Dabanavisha, Samarasura, Bheshaja, Bhishaca, Chatushpada (with four feet,) Crishicara, Nripabinfra, Papapapi, (these are tribes of robbers,) Vyalaranya, (the woods of Inakes,) Yashoyuta, Tiestina, (the Sun rules there,) Girifalila, Durga-coshala, Maru-cach'ba, Samudra-Romaca, (the sea of Rome,) Tufhara Vanaváfi, Tancaha, Hala, Strirajya, and the iflands in the Mabarnava, or great sea, Madbura-rasu, Cusumaphala, some read Madbura, Rafaca, Sumapbala, (this last is the name of the country at the source of the Ganges according to the divines of Tibet, and the lake Su-Mapanh feems to be called by them the fea of Matroba) Salila-mani the jewel of the fea, Lavana the sea of falt, San'cha, Mauetica, Abja, Mandácini, Uttarapandya, or North Pandu, on the banks of the Hyflaspes, Between the river Sind'bu and Mot'bura, on the Yamuna, is Bbarata, and the Sauviras, (Suir in the spoken dialects,) Sughna, Divya, (a river, the Vipásá or Beyab,) Satadru, Satloj, the country of Ramata, Salava, Traigartta, now Taborab, Paurava or country of Puru, (Porus,) Ambashta BAD near Tanehsar, D'bánya, Yand'heya or country of Yudd'ba, Ayoud between the Vetastá and Sind'bu, the country of Sarafvata, Arjunayana, Matfya, Arda ba-grama,

Hastyasvapura, Mangalya, Paushtica, Sacta, Cárunya. The following tribes drink of the waters of the Airávati; Ravy, Vitastá, and Chandrabhágá, the Prast halas, Málava, Caicaya, Dasarna, Ushinara. The country of Caicaya is acknowledged to be Cabul, and Málava is Malwa, and of course they cannot drink of the waters of the above mentioned rivers: such blunders and inaccuracies are very frequent in the Puránas: in the present list Cásmíra, is placed to the North East of India: and I could point out many more.

III. THE Tacsha-silas mentioned in this list, are called Tacshilas in the Vribat-cat'bá, and their country is said there to be on the banks of the Vitassá, or Hystaspes. They still exist as a numerous tribe, under the name of Syalas or Seyalas, and are divided into several branches; the Syalas proper, those of Syal-cote, of Jebung-Syal, whose principal town is called Yebung sialan by Major Rennel, the Cac-Syalas, &c.

The immense ruins of Tacshaila, as it is spelt also, cover a vast extent of ground, upon which a town and several considerable villages have been built; but these ruins are now mere rubbish. The Syálas are exceedingly proud of their antiquity, talk of ancient heroes, yet they remember nothing of Alexander, and his conquests. They are a fine race of men, tall, bold, and generous, like their neighbours the Chátars, the Chateri of Diodorus, the Sicilian; the greatest part of the latter are still Hindus, and I have seen several of them at Benares: and their tribe is well known in Penjáb. The Syálas and Chátárs are certainly a distinct race in that part of the country. The Syálas, or Tacshasailas, or Silas are also called simply Tacshas as well as Syálas. The Syálas say, that the ancient name of their city was Uda-nágri, and Hud that of their country, from one

HUD-VALLALA, or the shepherd, called YULLULEAH by Persian authors, and LILATOS, by the Greeks * The country of Hud is called Hodu, in the book of Esiber, and seems to have included what is called Sind by Persian writers, at least the Northern parts of it. It is called Yuddheya in the Puranas, and Ayud or Ayoud by European travellers of the sixteenth century.

Serai Ravaut, called Rubbaut by Major RENNELL, is built upon the fite of Tacfbila, near Serai-Puckab.

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CHAPTER THE THIRD.

GEOGRAPHICAL EXTRACTS FROM THE PURANAS.

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I. For the satisfaction of the reader, I shall give a few specimens of the geograpical style of the Hindus, in the very words of the Pauránics. The sirst specimen is from the Brahmánda-purána.

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Now I shall describe the length, and breadth of the Earth; and give a true account of the seas and islands. Between the seven islands are thou-fands of smaller ones. I shall now describe the seven islands, with the Moon, the Sun, and the planets, with their dimensions to the satisfaction of mankind. I shall describe, the nine divisions of the island of

^{*} PLUTARCH de flumin. woce Indus.

Jambu, which exists from old, their length and circumference in Yojanas. The breadth of Jambu-dwipa is 100,000 of Yojanas: it is very large, beautiful, and circular. It includes nine divisions, with mansions full of living beings; it is surrounded by the sea of falt; the breadth of which is equal to that of Jambu-dwipa. Six ranges of mountains, with their divisions or countries, extend toward the East; which on both sides, East and West, join the Ocean.

HIMAPRAYA is Himaván, or full of fnow: Hemacú taca full of gold is Hemaván: Nishad ha resplendent with gold, like the rising Sun: Méru of gold of sour colours is the greatest of mountains; its body appears high in all its dimensions, of many colours all round, united by the skill of PRAJAPATI BRAHMA. Eastward it is white, like the offspring of BRAHMA, born from the navel of Vishnu; South it is yellow, and appears like a Vaisya. On the side of Varuna, West, it is like the dry leaves of a tree; and like a Súdra, looks Méru of many mames. North it is red, and looks like a Cshetri: these are conspicuous from their colours.

Like the Vaidurya or Lapis Lazuli gem is the Nila mountain: Swetafringa, abounding with gold, and Sringaván like the feathers of the peacock. These are the chief hills, like so many kings; inhabited by Sidd'has, and Gand'harvas. The spaces between them are 9000 Yojanas. In the middle is Ilávrata round Méru a space of 9000 Yojanas and this mount Méru like sire without smoke, stands in the middle. The surface of the Earth stands one half on the South of Méru, and the other half on the North. Between these seven divisions are hills; their breadth is 2,000 Yojanas each, and 2,000 Yojanas their height.

I HAVE mentioned the breadth of Jambu-dwipa, now the two middle ranges Níla, and Nishad'ha, are 10,000 Yojanas less, in the Bhagavata 1000 only. Sweta and Hemacuta, likewife 10,000 less than the two former in length, and so are Himavan and Sringavan. In these seven Countries, are feen the footsteps of living creatures, with hills here and there, as if scattered at random. The Country below Himavat is Bharata by name: beyond is Haimacuta with Cimpurusha: beyond is Naishad'ha with golden peaks, and the Country of Harivarsham: and beyond Harivarsham is Meru, and Ilavrata; beyond Ilavrata are the Nila mountains, and the Country of Ramyaca; beyond Ramyaca is Hiranmaya; beyond this is Sringa, and the Country of Curu. Know that the countries South and North of Meru, are shaped like a bow. These are four districts remarkable for their length, between them is Ilávrata. The division of the surface behind Nishad'ha is called the Southern division: the division beyond Nila is called the Northern one. South of Nila, and North of Nishad'ha length-wife, and towards the East is Mályaván a thousand Yojanas: high, like Níla and Nishad'ba. Its length is 34,000 Yojanas, West of it is the mountain of Gand'hamadana. Its length and breadth like Mályavána's. In the middle of a fort of circle, is Meru high, and of four colours; of four fides is this golden mountain, the greatest of all.

THESE four fides are remarkable, as they are the four paths of the five affections of the mind, from which, as they answer to the five elements, are produced all living beings.

The great God, the great, omnipotent, omniscient one, the greatest in the world, the great Lord, who goes through all the worlds, incapable of decay, and without body, is born a moulded body, of sless and

bones, made, whilst himself was not made. His wisdom and power pervades all hearts; from his heart sprung this Padma Lotos like world in times of old. It was then in this, that appeared, when born, the God of Gods with four faces, the Lord of the Lords of mankind, who rules over all, the Lord of the world: when this flower was produced by VISHNU, then from his navel sprang the worldly Lotos, abounding with trees, and plants: then the dimensions of this worldly Lotos became obvious to the fight.

ROUND it are four great islands or countries : in the middle like the germ is Meru thus called; a great mountain, of various colours all round, toward the Fast para it is white, I say: yellow toward the South : apara Westward it is black; and to the North red like the dawning morn bálárca. Its height is 84,000 Yojanas: 16,000 below the furface of the Earth. In the middle it is hollow like the germ of the Lotos. Its breadth is above 32,000 Yojanas: its circumference twice that, added to it. Round it are four larger countries, and many smaller ones. Bhadrásva, Bhárata, Cetumála to the West, and to the North the Curavas, Curu in the fingular number; in which are men abounding in righteouf-The circumference of the germ carnica is 90,000 Yojanas, the internal circumference is 84,000: the stamina, filaments, or chives cesarajala extend length-wife to the number of 100,000; and their circumference is 300,000 Yojanas. The four petals are 80,000 long, and as many broad, I am now going to describe this great, and wonderful germ carnica, drupe or pericarp.

IT consists of 100,000 angles: BHRIGU says 3000; SAIVERNI 8000, VARSHAPANI 1000; BHA'GURI says, it is square: GA'LAVA that it is hollow: GRA'MYA that is like an egg, with the broad end below. URD'H-

VEI'N, like three twisted locks of hair, whilst others will have it to be spherical. Every Rishi represents this Lord of mountains, as it appeared to him from his station. BRAHMA, INDRA, and all the Gods, declare, that this largest of all mountains, is a form, consisting of jewels of numberless colours; the abode of various tribes; like gold, like the dawning morn, resplendent, with a 1000 petals, like 1000 water pots, with 1000 leaves.

WITHIN, it is adorned with the felf moving cars of the Gods, all beautiful: in its petals are the abodes of the Gods, like heaven: in its thousand petals they dwell with their conforts. There refides above BRAHMA', God of Gods, with four faces, the greatest of those, who know the Vedas, the greatest of the great Gods, also of the inferior ones. There is the court of BRAHMA' confisting of the whole Earth, of all those who grant the object of our wishes: thousands of great Gods are in this beautiful court; there the Brahmarishis dwell: it is called by all the world Manovati. There in the East is INDRA for ever to be praised, the God setting upon a vimana, resplendent like a thousand funs. There the Gods and tribes of Rifbis are always fitting in the prefence of the four faced God; these the God makes happy with his resplendence: there the Gods are finging praises to him. There is the Lord of wealth, beautiful with thousand eyes, the destroyer of towns: the Indralocas enjoy all the wealth of the three worlds. In the fecond interval, between the East and the South, is the great vimana of Agni or fire with a great resplendence, variegated with hundred forts of metals, refplendent; and from whom sprang the Vedas: there is his court: he does good to all, and his name is JI'VANI', in the mouth of whom the facred elements of the homa are put. There fire ANALA, the greatest of Gods, is feen in his proper form; he who gives delight to all the Gods, on deligible plant with the continue fider and con-

On the third fide, in this very fame manner, know there is the great court of VALVASWATA-YAMA, called by mankind SU-SANYAMA'. Thus in the next or fourth, is the court Sabba of the Lord of the corner, or country, of Nairita: his court is called Grishnangana; his name is VIRU'-PACSHA' with a disagreeable countenance. On the West, know that there is the court of VARUNA called SUBHAVATI': Now toward the North, in the North-west, is the court of VAYU' called GAND'HAVITI. In the seventh corner is the Sabba of the Lord of the Zodiac, called MAHODAYA' his feat, most beautiful, is of Vaidurya or lapis lazuli. In the eighth corner is the seat of Is'A'NA or SIVA; its colour is of fervid gold, and it is called Yasovati. These are the great and beautiful vimanas in the eight corners of the eight most benevolent Gods, called Indra-muc'byas. There dwells on the fummit the God of Gods, with four faces. There is the beautiful court of BRAHMA ferved by tribes of Rifbis: it is called Manovati by mankind. There the Rishis, the Gods, and Gand'barvas, the Apsarasas, the great snakes. are the attendants, most fortunate, and constantly lifting up their hands.

SUCH is this Carrica, or germ, above the surface of the earth. Its circumference at the surface of the Earth is 48,000 Yojanas. This Méru, above the surface of the Earth, is declared to be a hill full of inhabitants. On all sides in every country are maryádá or dividing mountains. In these countries are mountains with seven channels, one from each hill, with beautiful peaks, like gold, yellow, with many streams: without, there are three channels, and as many within Jatara, and Deva-cútá are two hills to the East. Their length is from North to South equal to that of Nila and Nishad ba: Cailása and Himaván are South and North of each other: their length is East and West, jutting into the sea. Of this Méru very high, and of gold, the supports, or buttress like mountains Lishall now describe, like so many feet on sour sides: 10,000 Yojanas is

their breadth; and they are adorned on all fides, with great vimanas. East is Mandara, South Gand'bamadana; Vipula West, Supariva North. Their thousand peaks are so many seats adorned with black and red coral. There are four large trees, each with as many roots sa-mula, and branches with thousand smaller ones, all beautiful, and with flowers : these trees are the largest in the dwipas. On the summit of the Mandara mountain is a beautiful Cadamba tree : its fruit is like a great waterpot, with flowers, with open Calices. Its fragrance is felt one thousand Yojanas, and above all round: consider it then as a large slag: from its excellence, the country, it is in, is called Bhadrasva. Here is feen RISHICES'A, BHAGAVA'NA, and he with numerous Lidd'bas, rules there, here HARAHARI the great, the white, did obtain the tree Rudracadamba ;: he who does good to every body. No great man famous and learned among the bipedes ever faw this whole island called Bhadrasva. The Jambu tree, most beautiful, is on the South of the mountain of Meru; the fruits of which are Amritcalpani, like those of the Calpavricha, and fall on the summit of the mountain. From this mountain issues the Jambu river flowing with honey: in it, is found the gold called Jambunada, with which the Gods are adorned. This flag-like tree is in the Southern part of the dwipa, and is called Jambu by mankind: from it Yambu-dwipa derives its name.

On the Vipula mountain toward the West is the Placsha tree: from this slag-like tree or Cetu the country is called Cetu-Mala; the Gods, and Gand'barvas worship it. On Suparsva, in the North, on its summit is a large tree, the Nyagrad'ba: its large branches, and their circumference extend many Yojanas all round. Thus I have described the slag-like tree of the North, Curus. There are the seven Curavas or Gurus: for Curava is a plural from, truly fortunate, and who obtained

happiness, unalterable, most exquisite in this world, for a long time: and after them this island or country was called the seven Curavas, or Curu simply in the singular number.

This will suffice to give an idea of the geographical turn of the Hindus, and I shall leave off in future the descriptions of mountains, dales, and lakes, as if viewed through a prism, omitting the enchanting buzz of the fix-stooted Bbramara a beetle, or rather a large black bee fucus or drone, the names of fragrant flowers, and precious stones, with which the Hindus are as much delighted, as children are with the bare names of sweetmeats, and flowers jumbled together.

II. In the description of Bhadrasva, or China, as we have observed before, the Pauranies take peculiar notice, that this extensive country had never been visited by great men, that is to say, by men of learning and respectability. The author then gives an account of the sour sacred streams in these words:

HEAR now what divine streams issue from the lakes, abundant with ogba living waters. The water of the Ocean, coming from heaven upon Méru, is like amrita; and from it arises a river, which, through seven channels, encircles Méru for a space of eighty-four Yojanas, and then divides into four streams springing over the four sacred hills toward the four cardinal points. One stream goes over Mandara in the East, and encircles the beautiful grove of Chaitra-rat'ha, and falls into the Arunodá, or Aruna lake, and goes thence to the mountains of Sitanta, Sumanta, Sumanjasa, Mádbyavanta, to Vaicanca, Mani, Rishabha, from hill to hill; then falls to the ground, and waters the country of Bhadrásva, a Su-mahá-dwipa, or beautiful, and extensive island, or country;

and then it joins the Eastern Ocean near the Purva-dwipa, or Eastern island called in other Puranas the island of Indra, and of the rising sun, as implied also in its present Chinese name of Gepuen or Japan.

The Southern branch goes to Gand'hamádana, from hill to hill, from flone to stone; it encircles the forest of Gand'hamádana, or Deva-nandana, where it is called Alacanandá. It goes to the Northern lake, called Mānasa, thence to the King of mountains with three summits, thence to the mountains of Calinga, Ruchaca, Nishad'ha, Jamrábha, or copper mountains, Swetodara, Sumula, another King of hills, Vasud'hára, Hemacuta, Deva-śringa, Pishachaca, a great mountain, Pancha-cuta, or with five peaks; then to Cailasa, thence to Himavat, or snowy range; and then, this Mahábhágá, or most propitious river, having watered many countries, falls into the Southern Ocean. Maha'deva received it on his own head, from which, spreading all over his body, its waters are become most efficacious. It falls then upon Himáchala, from which it gangs its way upon earth: hence it is called Gangá:

To the West apara is a large river encircling the forests of Vaibhraja: it is Mabá-bbágá, most propitious: it falls into the lake Sitodá, called by Persian authors Diva-Sáran: thence it goes to the Su-Baesha mountains, and to the Pursiodá lake, or the Caspian Sea, to the montains called Sic'hi, Canca Vaidúrya, Capila Gand'ba-mádana, Pinjara, Cumuda Mad'bumánta, Anjana, Mucúta Crisbna, Sweta filled with large snakes, to the mountain with 1000 peaks, to the Párijáta mountain, through Cetumála a large country, then falls into the Western Ocean. It is the Chaeshu or Oxus.

NORTH from Méru there falls a branch called Bhadrá, and Bhadráfomá upon Suparsva of gold, which it encircles; and goes to the lake Called Sitodacá, in the forest of Bhadra-soma, thence to the mountains of Sancha-cúla, Vrisha Vatsa, Nila, Capinjala, Indra-nila, Mahá-nila, Hemaśringa, Savetasringa, Sunaga, to the mountain with an hundred peaks, Pushcara, Dwija-rája, Varáha boar, Mayura peacock, to the single peak Játudhi; then after corroding a thousand inserior hills, it goes to the mountain with three peaks, to Vishudd'ha; then goes into the Northern Ocean. This mountain of Vatsa is said by astronomers, to be in the same meridian with Lancá, and as such is mentioned by several French authors, as Bailli, Gentil, &c.

CLOSE to the Gand'hamádana, along the banks of the Apara-Gandicá, or Western Gandicá, is the country of Cetu-mála, 34,000 Yojanas in length, and 32,000 broad. The Cetumálas are mighty in deeds, strong and powerful; the women bright like the Lotos flower: and whoever sees them, falls in love with them. There is the great tree Panasa, the Ygdrass of the Edda, from which slow the fixth juices. There resides Is'wara, or Is'a, the son of Brahma'. The proper name of this country is Cetu, which has an obvious affinity with the Cetüm of Scripture, a plural form, and in the singular number Ceti, and with the Cetü of prophane authors.

On the East, in Bhadrásva or Chína, is the Purva-Gandicá, or Eastern Gandicá: and the length of its course is the same with that of the Apara, or Western one. In the Varáha-purána it is said, that the course of the Purva-Gandicá is 1000 Yojanas, but that of the Apara or Western, is only 400, which is more conformable to truth, as the Oxus does not fall into the Atlantic Ocean.

THE author then gives an account of the countries round Meru, as

far as the seas surrounding the old continent. He treats first of the Drosis, vallies, or countries situated between ranges of mountains. The Brábma, Váyu, and Brahmánsa-puránas, are the most copious on this subject. The mountainous tracts to the North of India, are so little known to us, and to the Hindus themselves, that I can by no means throw any light upon so extravagant and obscure descriptions of them, as are to be found in these Puránas. I shall of course pass them over, after having taken notice of two curious passages, one relates to the samous mountain of Cailása or Cailas, the heaven of Siva, and often used by his followers for heaven in general, as Coilus, Coilum, and Coila, by the Latians. There resides Siva called also Arman, or Uranus: for Siva, like Uranas, presides over Astronomy.

It is said to be one hundred yojanas in length, and fifty broad; and a most extravagant description of it is given in the Puránas. I have conversed with many pilgrims, who had seen this samous mountain, and they uniformly declared to me, that it is only eight or nine miles to the South of the lake of Rávana, the Lanken of the maps. It is about three coss long, or seven miles, and shaped like a mandap, by which they understand a building, like a barn. Vaicanta, the heaven of Vishnu, is toward Assam; and that of Brahma' towards Tartary, a considerable way to the North. In the Váyu-purána we read, that in the Southern vallies with regard to Méru, is the immense forest of Udumbara, in which is the place of abode of Carddames'wara, the eldest son of Adam. This place they suppose to be in the vast Mediterranean island, in the Paltze lake in Tibet, a very proper place for him, and also to the Eastward of Eden.

Bur let us pass to the mountains, valleys, and champain countries to

to the West of Meru. It is said in the Brahma purana, that in Bhadrasua or China, VISHNU resides there with the countenance, and head of a Horse. In Bharata, he has the countenance of a Tortoise: in Cetu-mala or Europe, he relides in the shape of a Varaba or Boar, and he isdescribed as the chief of a numerous offspring, or followers in that shape. He is then in Cetu-mala Varakapa, or the chief of the Varabas. or Boars; a word to be pronounced according to the idiom of the spoken dialects Warapa. In Curu he has the countenance of a Matfya or fish: and of course he is there Sira-matsya, or with the head or countenance of a fish. He is probably the CHRADO of the Goths, who was represented standing upon a fish in the waters. For the extensive country of Curu is declared to be South of the Northern Ocean, and North of Meru in the Puránas, and particularly in the beginning of the Brabma-purána. It begins immediately at the foot of the Northernmost range of Hills, a little beyond fifty-two degrees of latitude North, and extends from fea to with name of growns, will dead from this famous mountain, and they made

III. Is the Vayu-purana the countries to the West of Meru are thus described; and the author begins with the vallies, and champain countries.

THERE are many vallies, and flat grounds to the West of Méru, divided by numerous ranges of hills. About the mountains of Su-bacsha, the Becuis of Ptolemy, and Sichi-śaila is a level country about a hundred yojanas in extent; and there the ground emits flames. It is a most dismal place, horrid to the sight, inaccessible to mortals: the sight of it makes the very hair stand. It is the abode of the superior deities. There is Vibha'-vasu, or Vasu simply, who presides over the fire, burning without suel; he who is the great deity, and their fire seems to have life. When performing holy rites with offerings to the Gods, men always give

fire his share. There that very fire, which one day will spread over, and encompass the whole universe, is constantly burning. Within the mountains is the abode of the illustrious, and powerful Gods; with the place of the Mátu-linga ten yojanas broad, and there is the hermitage of VRI-

LIKE these two mountains are Cumuda and Anjana: between these is an extensive valley with a lake. The Cumuda range answers to the Comedi mountains of Protenty: and the Anjana or black range, to the Anthema of Persian writers, as I observed before, and there is the Ayatana, or abode of VISHNU.

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The strain of Vasu is obviously a voscano in the Al-burz mountains, and a voscano is really Vásaváyatana, or the abode of Vasu in a derivative form; and here we have the etymology of Veseus, Vesuvius, and Aitna or Etna, which words have been improperly divided. Between the great mountains Cristona and Pándura, the black and white mountains, is a level country. In it is a Padmini land, or marshy ground abounding with Lotos. There resides the God with a thousand bodies. Mankind call it Ananta-sada, or Anantee-sedes, the seat of Hart, with the title of Ananta. In the middle of the Cumuda mountains with a thousand peaks, there is a forest fifty vojanas long, and thirty broad. There is the samous pool of the Apsaras; many holy men live there, and drink of its pure waters.

BETWEEN Sancu-cuta, or the peak like a wooden-pin, and the Vrishabba mountains, is the stadie, or country of Parushaca many yojanas in length. There live the Cinnaras, Uragas, serpents, and holy men.

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could the Commence and among them the Phendums, were confessed of

THE tract between the mountains of Capinjala, and Naga-saila is twohundred vojanas in length, and one hundred broad, truly delightful, adorned with many groves. It abounds with fruits, and flowers of various forts. The Cinnaras, and Uragas, with tribes of pious and good men live there. There are beautiful groves of Drácsbá or vine trees, Nága trees or Nágaranga, the orange tree, and plum, or rather stone fruit trees. It abounds with lakes and pools filled to the brim, with fweet and refreshing waters. What part of it lies between the Pushpaca and Maba-Megha mountains, about one hundred yojanas long, and fixty broad, is as flat as the palm of the hand, as known to every body, with very little water, which is whitish. The soil is hard, and tenacious, without trees, and even without grass. There are few living creatures: and the few inhabitants are without fixed habitations : this defert is fo dreary as to make the traveller's hair stand up. The whole country is called Cánana, or Cánan. There are feveral large lakes, likewise great trees, and larger groves, called Cántá. The smaller lakes, pools, groves, orchards, producing delightful juices, are numberless. The vallies, depths, lakes, and groves are fome ten, others twelve, feven, eight, twenty, or thirty yojanas in circumference. There are caves in the mountains, most dreary and dark, inacceffible to the rays of the fun, cold and difficult of accefs. In that country are Sidd'has, or prophets with the gift of miracles; learned and famous Brabmens, bright like fire; hundred thousands of them are in that country.

It is truly surprising to find so plain, and sensible a description of a country in the Puránas: for the translation is faithful, and I have not lest out, as before, any passage on any account whatsoever. It appears to be Syria in its largest dimensions, and which the author calls Cánan; because the Cananeans, and amongst them the Phanicians, were possessed of

the greatest, and best part of it, and were moreover famous all over the

The dimensions in yojanas in general, must be considerably reduced; but there are particular instances when they must be retained, and such cases are by no means numerous. I have noticed that the description of this country was a plain narrative, which, if not true, bore at least every mark of probability.

THE mountains of Capinjala, a fort of bird, and Nága or of the Serpents, are unknown: the region between them was 200 yojanas, or about 900 miles long, and 100 broad, or about 450 miles. These are the dimensions of Syria from Babylon, to the Mediterranean sea. It consisted of two parts, a dreary desert, and the other a most charming and fruitful country, with six, or seven lakes called seas, the largest of which is the Asphaltite sea, thirty yojanas in circumference, according to Josephus's account.

THE Pauranies in their description of countries never mention, at least as far as I can recollect, the vine, and plum, or olive tree, nor the Nagaranga, or orange tree, unless we are to understand the latter of trees bearing golden apples. The larger lakes, the numberless pools, the caves in the mountains, the abundance of vineyards, and orchards filled with orange and olive trees, is perfectly correct, as well as the description of the desert, with its scanty waters of a whitish colour, and a few inhabitants, without any fixed habitations, is literally true. The numerous and learned Levites, who were really Brabmens, the Sidd bas or prophets working miracles, are certainly wonderful circumstances.

THE Cinnaras may be the inhabitants of the country of Cinnereth, round

the lake of the same name with the town of Cinnereth. The tribe of Uragas, or serpents, were probably the Hivites, whose name implies the same
thing. Vadari signifies a plum tree, but in general a stone fruit tree; and
is of course applicable to the olive tree, for which, I believe, there is no
name in Sanscrit. It is not understood here of the date tree, for which
there is a name in that language.

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This curious passage proves the existence of an early intercourse between the Hindus, with the inhabitants of the more Western countries, and particularly the Israelites. I shall show in the course of this work, that such an intercourse existed formerly: and Lucian takes a particular notice of the Hindus visiting holy places in Syria, such as the standard of Mahá-bhágárdev, called Bombyce, and now Manbeg. This, in my humble opinion, explains an obscure passage of the prophet isatas, who lived in the eighth century before Christ*: "Verily thou hast forsaken thy people, the "house of Jacob; because they are filled with davaners from the "East, from more, than or beyond the East; who are soothsayers like "those of the Philistines; and they delight in the society of children of "strangers." This passage I conceive to allude to Hindus, from the very forcible expression of from the East, from beyond the East, or from the remotest parts of the East. The prophet did not mean the Chaldeans, who were well known to him, as he repeatedly takes notice of them.

IV. THE next mountains are those of Sitanta, many yojanas in extent, bounding with all forts of metals and gems. It is skirted by a most delightful country, well watered, enlivened with the harmonious noise of the black bee, and frogs. There are towns with gates: and the refreshing

^{*} Isaian, chap. z. v. 6 .- See also Bishop Lowth on Isaian.

and re-uniting together, forms a stream, called the Vabá of the Moon, or Chandra-vabá. There live the Sidd'has and Yacshas in caves, with intricate but delightful mazes. There among immense caves is the Cridávana, or place of dalliance of Mahendra, where knowledge and the completion of our wishes is fully obtained. There is the great forest of the Párijáta tree, of the kings of the Gods, known through the three worlds: and the whole world sings his praise from the Védas: such is the place of dalliance of him with 1000 eyes, or Indra.

One fide is Swarna of gold, as implied by its name, full of hills of the purest gems and corals. In this charming grove of SACRA, or INDRA, the Gods, the Dánavas, the snakes, Yacshas, Rácshasas, Guhya, or Cuveras, Gand'barvas, Vidyád'baras live happy, as well as numerous tribes of Assartas fond of sport.

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To the East of this lord of mountains is Cumula, a peak, with eight towns of the proud Dánavas. In the mountains of Vajraca, with many peaks, live Rácshasas, frightful, assuming whatever countenance they please, strong, and performing wonderful atchievements: these Rácshasas are called Nilacas.

In Mabá-Nila, or the great blue range, are fifteen towns belonging to the Hayánana or Aśva-muc'ba, or horse-faced tribe, probably the Parabians, and the descendants or Torgama, who bred horses, and carried them to the principal fairs in the East. In Sanserit, Turangama, perhaps the same with Thorgama, for thus Thogarma is also written, signifies a horse, and implicitly a horseman: and the Hindus derive from it the appellation of Turcoman. They are originally Cinnaras, courageous like the leader of the

armies of the Gods; CA'RTICE'YA, with large hands, and strong like the Indrádicas. There are fifteen chiefs of the Cinnaras, elated with pride. There in towns under ground, like Bámiyan, live people like snakes; no man can look them in the face, and meet their eyes: their looks are like fire, like the poison of serpents. These live upon the golden stamina of certain flowers. In the hills there are above a thousand abodes of Daityas: the houses are elegant, like high-embattled forts.

In Venu-manta, or Venuman, are three forts belonging to the Vidyad'baras, thirty vojanas long, and twenty-five broad. These belong to the Ulucas, the Romashas or Romacas, and the Mahá-netras. These rank among the greatest of the Vidyad'haras, and whose mighty deeds equal those of INDRA. The country of Vehumanta is one hundred and forty miles long, and about fixty broad: in it there are three ftrong fortified places, held at the same time by the three most powerful nations then existing. The Remaskas, or Romacas, are the Romans, called Romaicoi in Greek, and often mentioned in the Puranas and other books of the Hindus, but only in general terms. The Ulucas are the Sacas, called also Bolga, Volca, and Wolkæ; these were probably the Parthians. The Mahá-netra, or with large eyes, are probably the Armenians: and it was in the first century, that these three powerful nations were thus brought in contact, on the borders of Syria, Armenia, and Persia, in a country bordering upon the lake Van, thus called from a town of the same name, which in the Armenian language fignifies a fortified place. Har-Minni, or Har-Minnith, fignifies the mountains of Minnith, or Armenia, and Vani-minnith or Vanni-minni, the strong holds of Ar-minni, Armona, Armana, or Armenia: for thus its name is variously written.

In the Brabmanda it is declared, that in the country of Cusa, including

Iran, Syria, and Arabia, is the Cumudvati, or Euphrates, with the Cumuda mountains; from which Cusa is also denominated the dwipa, or country of Cumuda. There live the Sacas, a powerful nation: the Párasicas remarkable for their beauty, and the Syámacas seemingly thus called from their black complexion. These were subdued by Raghu: and in the book of his wars, a few remarkable sircumstances relating to that extensive country, occur occasionally. Otherwise the Párasicas, or natives of Párasa, or Parsia, are seldom noticed by the Paurásics. In Cumuda is the Cumudvatí river, and the sibán of Maha'-Bha'ga'-Devi', the sister of Maha'-Deva. Of this samous place, I took particular notice in my Essay on Semiramis, under the name of Mabog and Manbeg.

On Vaicanca resides the offspring of Garupa, the destroyer of serpents: it abounds with metals and precious stones. A strong and turbulent wind swiftly passes over this mountain, in a human form, called Sugriva. The offspring of Punna'Ga'ri, or Garupa, in the shape of birds, sly about this mountain: they are strong, sly quickly, and mighty are their atchievements. On Caraja always resides the mighty lord of living beings, who manifests himself there to human sight, the great God riding upon a Bull, bence called Vrisha-bha'nca-sancara, the chief of Yogis. The inhabitants like Maha'-deva always carry poison about them: they are Pramat'bas or servants of Maha'-deva, and difficult of access. Maha'-deva resides there among them.

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On Vasu-d'bara in Vasumati, a mountain and country sull of fire, as implied by their names, are the stbans, or places of the eight forms of Maha-deva, the merciful God. They are sull of resplendence, and proper places of worship. There are seven stbans of Sidd'bas: and the stban of Brahma' with sour faces, the mighty lord of created beings,

on a high peak: all living creatures bow to it. The eleven Rudras refide there, on the Goja-saila, or elephant mountain.

Megha, with many caves in its bosom, and arbours in its skirts. It is the Ayatanan, or place of abode of the twelve Suns, and of the eight forms of Rudra. There also the st hans of Vishnu, and the Aswinau or Dioscuri, with many belonging to the Sidd'has and Gods. There the Yaeshas, Gand'harvas, and Ginnaras, probably priests and minstrels, are constantly performing the puja. In the bosom of this mountain, are famous and large cities of the Gand'harvas, resplendent like Amara-puri, with large forts well embattled, in which reside the Sidd'has, and Gand'harvas deeply skilled in war, with their king Capinjala mountains, of which I took notice before.

On Anala, a fire moutain also, reside tribes of Rácshasas, or evil spirits with a human body, on this mountain with five peaks, with the Dánavas, proud, enemies of the Gods, great, strong and of mighty deeds. These Dánavas are perhaps the Greeks, the offspring of DANAUS.

called wind family suffice over this mountain, in a furnish leave, called

On Sata-śringa, or with one hundred peaks, reside the Yacshas, a benovelent tribe. On Tamrabba, or the copper mountain, is a town inhabited by the Cadraveyas, or children of CADRU, the wife of CASYAPA, and by Tacshacas, a serpentine tribe of artists.

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In the great and beautiful Visacac'ha are many caves in its skirts: it is the famous place of abode of the God, who always dwells in caves, CA'RTICE'YA OR MARS. On Swetodara, or with a white belly, is a large town, and settlement of the beneficient Suna's HA, the son of GARUD'A.

On the large mountain of Paifachaca, is a fettlement of the Cuveras, called also Cuberas and Gubyas, and the same with the Cabirian tribes, with a commodious palace, resorted to by the Yacsbas and Gand'harvas. On Hari-cuta resides the God Hari, to whom all the world bows: the samous navel of this most resplendent mountain is remarkable for its splendour.

On Cumuda reside the Cinnaras: on Anjana the great Snakes: on Grisbna are the towns of the Gand'barvas with large houses.

On Pándura on a beautiful peak, is the town of Vidyádbara, well fortified, and a large palace with battlements.

On the mountain with a thousand peaks, reside the Daityas and Danavas in a thousand towns. They are all shining with gold, and their voice is most melodious.

On Sucula reside the chiefs of the Pannagas, or great Snakes: and on Pushpaea many tribes of Munis. On Supacsha, or Subacsha, are the four mansions of Vaivaswata or Noah, of the Moon, of Vayu, and Nagas and Vidyad baras, and their chiefs, are constantly worshipping their Ishta or favorite deity.

THE place of VAIVASWATA or MAITLAM, is near Cabul, in the country of Lampacam, as it is called in the Puranas, and Lamgam by the natives. Of this place, I took particular notice in my Essay on mount Caucasus.

V. In this Purana, the author, whilst describing the mountains to the South, and South West of Merú, mentions a circumstance truly curious Y y 2

and interesting. Here, says he, in the forest of S'anc'ha was born Shad'a-Nana, or Ca'rtice'ya, Mars with six faces. Here he wished, or formed the resolution of going to the mountains of Crauncha, Germany, part of Poland, &c. to rest, and recreate himself after his satigues in the wars of the Gods with the giants. There, in the skirts of the mountains of Crauncha, he slung his sword, the very same which Attila, in the fifth century, afferted he had found under a clod of earth. It was placed in his tomb, where it is probably to be found.

In the Devi-Purana, it is declared, that DEVI' in her character of JAYA-DEVI', or goddess of victory, is worshipped in the dwipa of Crauncha under the emblem of a sword.

THE rest of the more Western countries is neglected by the compiler, as they are described in other paragraphs, under the names of dwipas or countries of Placsha, S'álmali, Crauncha S'ácam and Pushcara. He takes particular notice of a singular region in S'álmali, called the peak-land of the Gods.

Hear now: in Deva-cita, or peak-land of the Gods, which is a mountain dividing) parting countries, or in other words a long and extensive range, is the place where GARU'DA, the son of VINATA, was born; which is also his D'báma-domus home, on a broad peak of this great range, with a beautiful palace. This country is one hundred yojanas in circumference, or about four hundred and ninety miles. There resides the numerous offspring of GARU'DA in the shape of large birds, and of men also swiftly slying, strong, ruling all over the country, and full of pride. This is the sirst mansion of the lord of birds, generous and merciful, swift like the stormy wind, and who resides in the dwipa of Sálmali. It is

toward the South on one of the peaks of this mountain, conspicuous, full of wealth, beautiful, seven in number, bright like the morning, and evening skies, with forts of silver, well embattled, adorned with chaplets of houses made by the Gods, forty yojanas long, two hundred miles, and thirty broad, one hundred and sifty miles. These are called the seven towns of the Gand'barvas, full of men and women. This is a peculiar tribe of the Gand'barvas called Agneyas, sire-men, or rather artificers by fire, very strong, and of mighty deeds. They are the servants of the Cuveras, or Guhyas, whose principal employment is to explore the bowels of the earth in search of wealth. The rest of this curious description will be hereaster the subject of a particular section.

BEFORE we pass to the second part, it will be requisite to give some explanation of the accompanying Plates:

No. I, represents the worldly Lotos, floating upon the waters of the Ocean, which is surrounded, and its waters prevented from falling into the vacuum by the Suvarna-bhims, or land of gold, and the mountains of Locálocas.

No. II, represents the globe of the Earth, according to the Hindu astronomers. It is projected upon the plane of the equator, and the Southern hemisphere expanded in such a manner, that the South pole, instead of a point, becomes the largest circle of this projection. They also represent the two hemispheres, separately upon the plane of the equator.

No. III, represents the same, projected upon the plane of a meridian. These two projections are against the tenor of the context of the Puratias: a Southern hemisphere being then absolutely unknown.

HERE I have placed the three ranges of mountains, according to the documents of Hindu aftronomers: but not according to their usual delineations: for according to these, the three ranges should be represented by three concentric half circles, parallel to the meridians of the projection. It is acknowledged that these ranges are in the direction of as many parallels of latitude. In that case, the outermost ranges, must be the longest: and this is the opinion of the Jainas, as I observed before in the sixth paragraph of the first chapter.

No. IV, exhibits the old Continent, projected upon an imaginary circle passing through the North pole, and just grazing the equator in the South. Instead of a circle, it should be an oval, with the longest diameter East and West. But as the tracing of an oval would be attended with some difficulty, the indolent Pauranies have adopted the circle in its room; and seldom use the other. As such a delineation would be useless, I have of course omitted it.

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The chaim in the North-west, through the mountains surrounding the world, was made by CRISHNA, when he went to see his prototype VISHNU, or the great spirit, the Paramátmá of the world, whose abode is among waters, in the land of darkness. Several heroes have passed since through this chasm, which will be the subject of a particular paragraph hereafter.

No. V, explains the true system of the known world according to the Puranas, and of the Jainas, reconciled with that of the astronomers of India.

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point, becomes the largedt circle of this projection. They alle represent

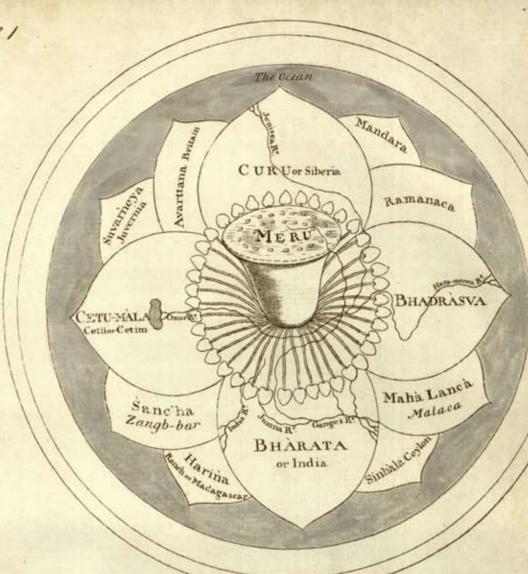
HERE the Méru of the Pauranics is brought back to its proper place,

whilst the Méru of the astronomers remains under the North pole. The zones between Jambu or India, and the Méru of the astronomers, are obviously our seven climates: and the points where the astronomical zones intersect the zones of the Pauranies round their respective centers equally called Méru, shew the true situation of the dwipas or countries, from which these zones according to the system, either of the astronomers or of the Pauranies, are equally denominated, whether they are reckoned relatively to the North pole, or to a centrical point in the elevated plains of Tartary.

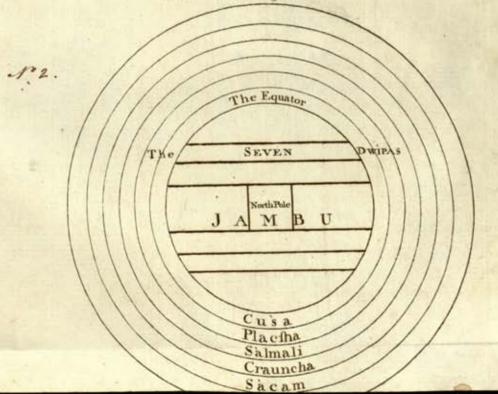
No. VI, is a delineation of the country of Bbarata, in the fullest acceptation of that denomination. Its nine divisions with Curu, or Siberia, and the Northern parts of Europe, making in all ten districts, were all destroyed by a violent storm, and inundation, except one. Thus the ten divisions of the Atlantis were all destroyed by a flood except one called Gades, which probably included Spain.

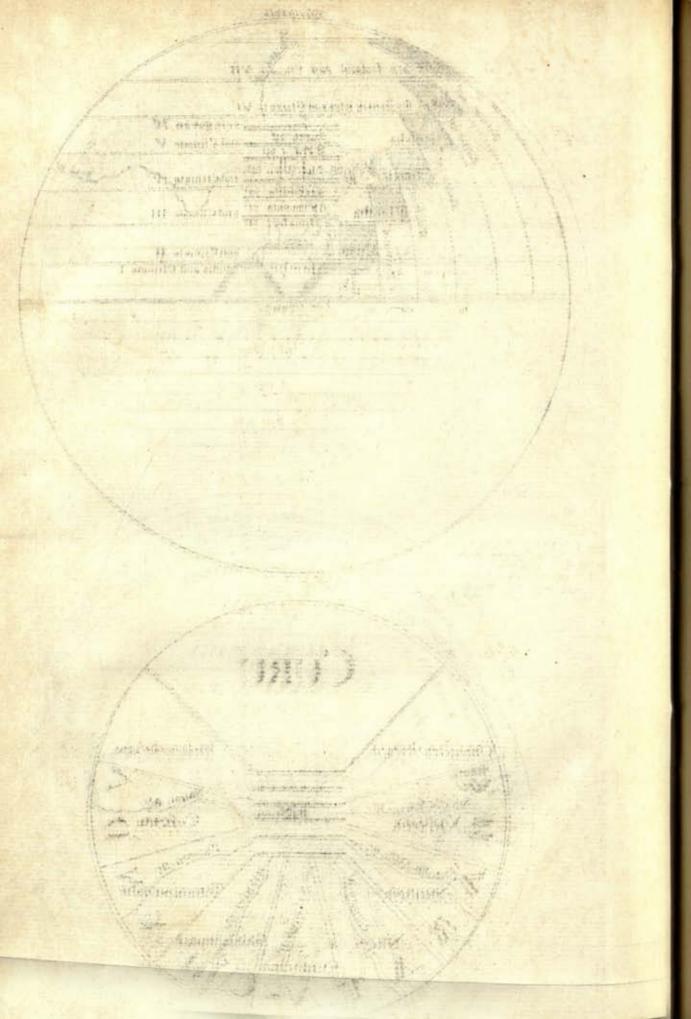
Some also are of opinion, that, out of the seven dwipas, fix were like-wise overwhelmed by a flood. This circumstance is also noticed in the third volume of the Ayin-Acberi. But I believe that this notion originated with the Puranicas, who, unable to point out these wonderful countries, described in so extravagant a manner in their sacred books, found that the best way was to swear, that they had disappeared.

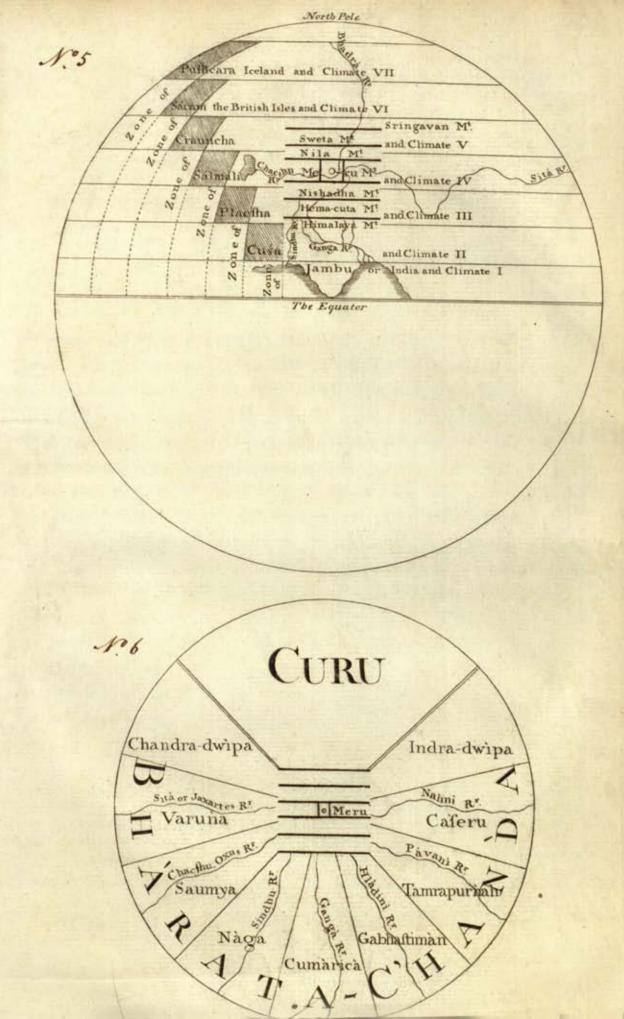
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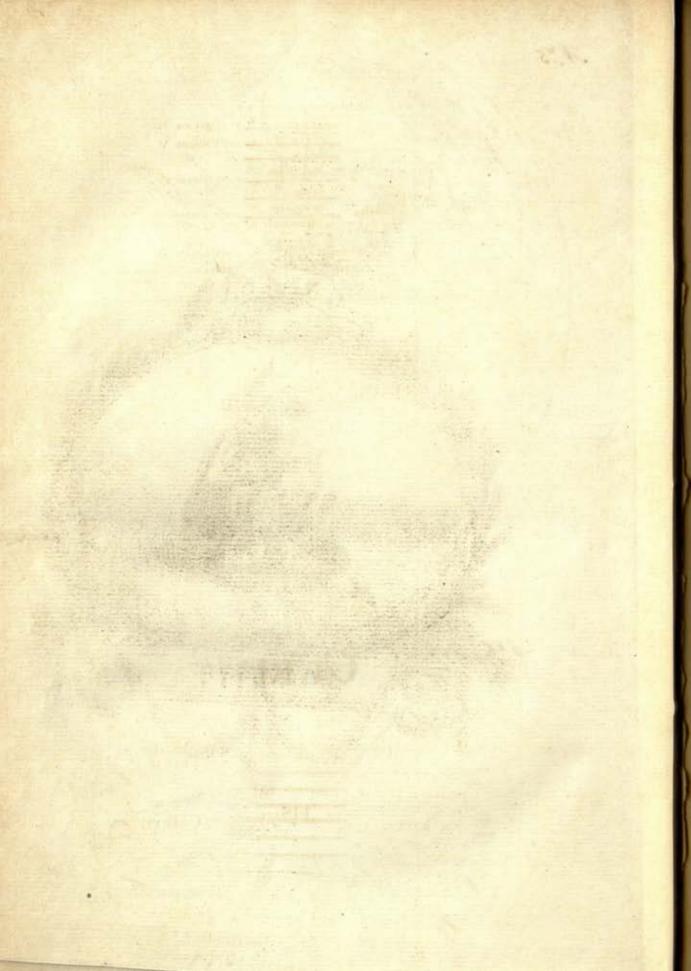


The Worldly Loros









VIII.

On the VE'DAS, or SACRED WRITINGS of the Hindus.

BY H. T. COLEBROOKE, Esq.

IN the early progress of researches into Indian literature, it was doubted, whether the Védas were extant; or, if portions of them were fill preferved, whether any person, however learned in other respects, might be capable of understanding their obsolete dialect. It was believed too, that, if a Brábmaha really possessed the Indian scriptures, his religious prejudices would nevertheless prevent his imparting the holy knowledge to any, but a regenerate Hindu. These notions, supported by popular tales, were cherished long after the Védas had been communicated to Da'RA Shuco'H; and parts of them translated, into the Persian language, by him, or for his use*. The doubts were not finally abandoned, until Colonel POLIER obtained from Jeyepur a transcript of what purported to be a complete copy of the Vedas, and which he deposited in the British Museum. About the fame time, Sir Robert Chambers collected at Benares numerous fragments of the Indian scripture: General MARTINE, at a later period, obtained copies of some parts of it: and Sir WILLIAM JONES was successful in procuring valuable portions of the Védas, and in translating several curious passages from one of them +. I have been still more fortunate in collecting at Benares, the text and commentary of a large portion of these

^{*} Extracts have also been translated into the Hindl language: but it does not appear, upon what occasion this version into the vulgar dialect was made.

t See Preface to Manu, page vi, and the Works of Sir William Jones, Vol. VI.

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celebrated books: and, without waiting to examine them more completely, than has been yet practicable, I shall here attempt to give a brief explanation of what they chiefly contain.

IT is well known, that the original Véda is believed by Hindus to have been revealed by BRAHMA; and to have been preserved by tradition, until it was arranged in its present order by a sage, who thence obtained the surname of Vya'sa or Ve'davya'sa; that is, compiler of the Védas. He distributed the Indian scripture into four parts, which are severally entitled Rich, Yajush, Saman, and At'harvaña; and each of which bears the common denomination of Véda.

MR. WILKINS and Sir WILLIAM JONES were led, by the confideration of feveral remarkable passages, to suspect, that the fourth is more modern than the other three. It is certain, that Menu, like others among the Indian lawgivers, always speaks of three only, and has barely alluded to the Atbarvana* without however terming it a Veda. Passages of the Indian scripture itself seem to support the inference: for the fourth Veda is not mentioned in the passage, cited by me in a former essay, † from the white Tajush; nor in the following text, quoted from the Indian scripture by the commentator of the Rich.

"THE Rigvéda originated from fire; the Yajurvéda from air; and the "Samavéda, from the sun."

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^{*} MERU, chap. 11, v. 33.

⁺ Effar Second, on Religious Ceremonies. See Afiatick Refearches, Vol. VII, page 251.

[#] From the 31st chapter; which, together with the preceding chapter (30th), relates to the Purusa mid ba, a type of the allegorical immolation of NARAYANA, or of BRAHME in that character.

Masu alludes to this fabulous origin of the Vidas, (ch. 1, v. 23). His commentator, Ma'o'sa'-

ARGUMENTS in support of this opinion might be drawn even from popular dictionaries; for AMERA-SINHA notices only three Védas, and mentions the At'barvaña without giving it the same denomination. It is, however, probable, that some portion at least of the At'barvaña is as ancient, as the compilation of the three others; and its name, like their's, is anterior to Vya'sa's arrangement of them: but the same must be admitted in regard to the Itibása and Purásins, which constitute a sisth Véda, as the At'barvaña does a fourth.

It would indeed be vain to quote in proof of this point, the Puráñas themselves, which always enumerate four Vedas; and state the Itihis and Puráñas as a sisth: since the antiquity of some, among the Puráñas now extant, is more than questionable; and the authenticity of any one, in particular, does not appear to be as yet sufficiently established. It would be as useless to cite the Mardieca and Tápaniya Upanishads, in which the Atharva-véda is enumerated among the scriptures, and in one of which the number of four Védas is expressly affirmed: for both these Upanishads appertain to the Atharvana itself. The mention of the sage Atharvana in various places, throughout the Védas*, proves nothing: and even a text of the Yajurvéda†, where he is named in contrast with the Rich, Yajush, and Sáman, and their supplement of Brábmaña, is not decisive. But a very unexceptionable passage may be adduced, which the commentator of the Rich has quoted, for a different purpose, from the Ch'hándógya Upani-shad, a portion of the Sáman. In it, Na Reda, having solicited instruc-

TIT'HI, explains it by remarking, that the Rigvéda opens with a hymn to fire; and the Tajarvida, with one, in which air is mentioned. But Cultu'ca shar'r'a has recourse to the renovations of the universe. In one Calpa, the Védas proceeded from fire, air, and the sun; in another, from BRAHMA' at his allegorical immolation.

Vide Védas paffim.

⁺ In the Taittiriya Upani, bed.

extent of his previous knowledge, fays, 'I have learnt the Rigvéda, the Yajurvéda, the Sámavéda, the At'barvaña, [which is] the fourth, the Itibáfa and Puráña, [which are] a fifth, and [grammar, or] the Véda of Védas, the obsequies of the manes, the art of computation, the knowledge of omens, the revolutions of periods, the intention of speech [or art of reasoning], the maxims of ethicks, the divine science [or construction of scripture], the sciences appendant on holy writ [or accentuation, prosody, and religious rites], the adjuration of spirits, the art of the soldier, the science of astronomy, the charming of serpents, the science of demigods [or musick and mechanical arts]: all this have I studied; yet do I only know the text, and have no knowledge of the soul*.'

FROM this, compared with other passages of less authority, and with the received notions of the Hindus themselves, it appears, that the Rich, Yajush, and Saman, are the three principal portions of the Véda; that the Atharvana is commonly admitted as a fourth; and that divers mythological poems, entitled Itibasa and Puranas, are reckoned a supplement to the scripture, and, as such, constitute a sisth Véda +.

^{*} Ch'handogya Upanishad, ch. 7, § 1. I insert the whole passage, because it contains an ample enameration of the sciences. The names, by which grammar and the rest are indicated in the original text, are obscure; but the annotations of Sancara explain them.

This, like any other portion of a Véda where it is itself named. (for a few other instances occur;) must of course be more modern than another part, to which the name had been previously assigned. It will hereaster be shown, that the Védas are a compilation of prayers, called mastras; with a collection of precepts and maxims, entitled Brábmana; from which last portion, the Upanishad is extracted. The prayers are properly the Védas, and apparently preceded the Brábmana.

⁺ When the fludy of the Indian scriptures was more general, than at present, especially among the Brahman's of Canyacubja, learned priests derived titles from the number of Vidas, with which they were

THE true reason, why the three first Vidas are often mentioned without any notice of the fourth, must be sought, not in their different origin and antiquity; but in the difference of their use and purport. Prayers, employed at solemn rites called Yajnyas, have been placed in the three principal Védas: those, which are in prose, are named Yajush; such, as are in metre, are denominated Rich; and some, which are intended to be chanted, are called Saman: and these names, as distinguishing different portions of the Védas, are anterior to their separation in Vya'sa's compilation. But the At barvaña, not being used at the religious ceremonies abovementioned, and containing prayers employed at suffrations, at rites conciliating the deities, and as imprecations on enemies, is essentially different from the other Védas; as is remarked by the author of an elementary treatise on the classification of the Indian sciences*.

But different schools of priests have admitted some variations in works which appear under the same title. This circumstance is accounted for by the commentators on the Védas, who relate the following story taken from Puránas, and other authorities. Vya'sa, having compiled and arranged the scriptures, theogenies, and mythological poems, taught the several Védas to as many disciples: viz. the Rich to Paila; the Yajush to Vais'ampa'yana, and the Sáman to Jaimini; as also the At'harvaña to Sumantu, and the Itibása and Puránas to Su'ta. These disciples instructed their respective pupils, who, becoming teachers in their turn, communicated the knowledge to their own disciples; until, at length,

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conversant. Since every priest was bound to study one Vida, no title was derived from the sussiment of that duty; but a person, who had studied two Vidas, was surnamed Dwivid; one, who was conversant with three, Trivids; and one, versed in four, Chaturvids: as the mythological poems were only figuratively called a Vida, no distinction appears to have been derived from a knowledge of them, in addition to the four scriptures. The titles, abovementioned, have become the surnames of samilies among the Brabmens of Canój, and are corrupted by vulgar pronunciation into Dóbê, Tiwas e and Chanbé.

^{*} MAD'HUSU'DANA SARASWATI', in the Proft ban'a bbeda.

in the progress of successive instruction, so great variations crept into the text, or into the manner of reading and reciting it, and into the no less facred precepts for its use and application, that eleven hundred different schools of scriptural knowledge arose.

The feveral Sanbitás or collections of prayers in each Véda, as received into these numerous schools, or variations, more or less considerable, admitted by them either in the arrangement of the whole text (including prayers and precepts), or in regard to particular portions of it, constituted the Sáchás or branches of each Véda. Tradition, preserved in the Puránas, reckons sixteen Sanbitás of the Rigvéda; eighty-six, of the Yajush; or, including those which branched from a second revelation of this Véda, a hundred and one; and not less than a thousand of the Sámavéda; bessides nine of the At'barvasía. But treatises on the study of the Véda reduce the Sác'hás of the Rich, to sive; and those of the Yojush, including both revelations of it, to eighty-six.*

The progress, by which (to use the language of the Puránas) the tree of science put forth its numerous branches, is thus related. PAILA taught the Rigvéda or Babvrich to two disciples, BAHCALA and INDRAPRAMATI. The first, also called Báhcali, was the editor of a Sanbitá, or collection of prayers; and a Sác'há, bearing his name, still subsists: it is said to have first branched into four schools; afterwards into three others. INDRAPRAMATI communicated his knowledge to his own son MAN'DUCE'YA, by whom a Sanhitá was compiled: and from whom one of the Sác'hás has derived its name. Ve'damitra, surnamed S'A'CALYA, studied under the same teacher, and gave a complete collection

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The authorities, on which this is flated, are chiefly the Viftus purau'a part 3, chap. 41 and the Vijeyavilása on the fludy of scripture; also, the Charasavyshia, on the Sác'hás of the Vides.

on of prayers: it is flill extant; but is faid to have given origin to five varied editions of the same text. The two other and principal Sac'has of the Rich are those of As'walayana and Sa'nc'hyayana, or perhaps Caushitaci': but the Vishnupurana omits them, and intimates, that Sa'capu'rn'r, a pupil of Indrapramant, gave the third varied edition from this teacher, and was also the author of the Nirusta: if so, he is the same with Ya'sca. His school seems to have been subdivided by the sometime of three others derived from his disciples.

THE Tajush or Ad'hwaryu consists of two different Védas, which have feparately branched out into various Sác'hás. To explain the names, by which both are distinguished, it is necessary to notice a legend, which is gravely related in the Purásias, and in the commentaries on the Véda.

strate and secondary to this authority + taught the Prince of to

THE Vajust, in its original form, was at first taught by Vars'AMPA'VANA, to twenty-seven pupils. At this time, having instructed Ya'ınyawal-cya, he appointed him to teach the Véda to other disciples. Being afterwards offended by the refusal of Ya'ınyawalcya to take on himself a share of the sin incurred by Vars'ampa'yana, who had unintentionally killed his lown fisher's some the resemble preceptor bade Ya'ınyawalcya relinquish the science; which he had learnt. He instantly disgorged it in a tangible form. The rest of Vars'ampa'yana's disciples, receiving his commands to pick up the disgorged Véda, assumed the form of partridges, and swallowed these texts, which were soiled, and, for this reason, termed "black:" they are also denominated Taittiriya, from titriri, the name for a partridge.

[&]quot; The Villan parana, part 3, chap. 5. A different motive of references is affigued by others. -

YA'JNYAWALCYA, overwhelmed with forrow, had recourse to the sun; and, through the favor of that luminary, obtained a new revelation of the Yajush; which is called "white" or pure, in contradistinction to the other, and is likewise named Vájasanéyi, from a patronymick, as it should seem, of Ya'JNYAWALCYA himself: for the Véda declares, 'these pure texts, revealed by the sun, are published by Ya'JNYAWALCYA the offspring of Va'JASANI*.' But, according to the Vishiu purána (3. 5. ad finem), the priests, who studied the Yajush, are called Vájins, because the sun, who revealed it, assumed the form of a Horse (Vájin).

I HAVE cited this absurd legend; because it is referred to by the commentators on the white Yajush. But I have yet sound no allusion to it in the Véda itself, nor in the explanatory table of contents. On the contrary, the index of the black Yajush, gives a different and more rational account. VAIS'AMPA'YANA, according to this authority +, taught the Yajurvéda to Ya'sca, who instructed TITTIRI‡: from him Uc'ha received it, and communicated it to A'TRE'YA: who framed the Sâc'bâ, which is named after him; and for which that Index is arranged.

reaching of two sufficest Print, which have

THE white Tajush was taught by Ya'JNYAWALCYA to fifteen pupils, who founded as many schools. The most remarkable of which are the Sác'bás of CANWA and MADHYANDINA; and, next to them, those of the Jábálas, Baud báyanas, and Tápaniyas. The other branches of the

wards "Thinds bearing within or "My page waters a re take on the fact a

[•] Vribad Aranyaca ad calcem. The passage is cited by the commentator on the Rigneda. In the index likewise, Ya'ınyawalıcya is stated to have received the revelation from the sun.

⁴ Cánd'ánucrama, verse 25. This index indicatorius is formed for the Atrést Sáchá. Its author is Cun'dina, if the text (verse 27) be rightly interpreted.

[†] This agrees with the etymology of the word Taittiriya; for, according to grammarians (see Pdaini 4, iii. 102), the derivative here implies 'recited by Tittiri, though composed by a different person'. A similar explanation is given by commentators on the Upanisheds.

rojusto seem to have been arranged in several classes. Thus the Characas, or students of a S'ác'bá, so denominated from the teacher of it, Characa, are stated as including ten subdivisions; among which are the Cas' bas, or disciples of Cat'ha, a pupil of Vais'ampa'yana; as also the Swétás-wataras, Aupamanyavas, and Maitráyaniyas: the last mentioned comprehend seven others. In like manner, the Taittiriyacas are, in the first instance, subdivided into two, the Auc'hyáyas and Chánsicéyas; and these last are again subdivided into five, the A'pastambiyas, &c. Among them, A'pastamba's śác'bá is still subsissing; and so is A'tre'ya's, among those which branched from Uc'ha: but the rest, or most of them, are become rare, if not altogether obsolete.

SUMANTU, son of JAIMINI, studied the Samave'da, or Ch'andogya, under his father: and his own fon, SUCARMAN, studied under the same teacher, but founded a different school; which was the origin of two others, derived from his pupils, HIRAN'YANA'BHA and PAUSHYINJI, and thence branching into a thousand more. For Locacshi, Cuthumi, and other disciples of PAUSHYINJI, gave their names to separate schools, which were increased by their pupils. The Sac'ha entitled Caut'humi, still subsists. HIRAN'YANA'BHA, the other pupil of SUCARMAN, had fifteen disciples, authors of Sanbitás, collectively called the northern Sámagas; and fifteen others, entitled the fouthern Samogas: and CRITI, one of his pupils, had twenty-four disciples, by whom, and by their followers, the other schools were founded. Most of them are now lost; and, according to a legend, were destroyed by the thunderbolt of INDRA. The principal S'ác'há now subsisting, is that of the Ranayaniyas including seven subdivisions; one of which is entitled Caut'humi, as abovementioned, and comprehends fix distinct schools. That of the Talavacáras likewise is extant, at least, in part: as will be shown in speaking of the Upanishads.

THE Al'barva veda was taught by Sumantu, to his pupil CabanD'HA, who divided it between De'vadars' and Pat'hya. The first
of these has given name to the S'ac'ba, entitled Dévadars'; as PippaLA'DA, the last of his four disciples, has, to the S'ac'ba of the Paippaladis.
Another branch of the At'barvana derives its appellation from Saunaca,
the third of Pat'hya's pupils. The rest are of less note.

before cited. But those numerous Sác'hás did not differ so widely from each other, as might be inferred from the mention of an equal number of Sanbitás, or distinct collections of texts. In general, the various schools of the same Véda seem to have used the same assemblage of prayers: they differed more in their copies of the precepts or Bráhmañas; and some received, into their canon of scripture, portions which do not appear to have been acknowledged by others. Yet the chief difference seems always to have been the use of particular rituals taught in aphorisms (Satras) adopted by each school; and these do not constitute a portion of the Véda; but, like grammar, and astronomy, are placed among its appendages.

It may be here proper to remark, that each Véda consists of two parts, denominated the Mantras and the Brábmañas; or prayers and precepts. The complete collection of the hymns, prayers and invocations, belonging to one Véda, is entitled its Sanbitá. Every other portion of Indian scripture is included under the general head of divinity (Brábmaña). This comprises precepts, which inculcate religious duties; maxims, which explain those precepts, and arguments, which relate to theology*. But, in the present arrangement of the Vedas, the portion, which contains passing the present arrangement of the Vedas, the portion, which contains passing the present arrangement of the Vedas, the portion, which contains passing the present arrangement of the Vedas, the portion, which contains passing the present arrangement of the Vedas, the portion, which contains passing the present arrangement of the Vedas, the portion, which contains passing the present arrangement of the Vedas, the portion of the Vedas are passing the passing the present arrangement of the Vedas are presented to the vedas are presented to the vedas are passing to the vedas are presented to the vedas are passing to the vedas a

^{*} The explanation, here given, is taken from the Profithana bhéan.

fages called Brábmañas, includes many which are strictly prayers or Mantras. The theology of the Indian scripture, comprehending the argumentative portion entitled Védánta, is contained in tracts denominated Upanishads; some of which are portions of the Brábmaña properly so called; others are sound only in a detached form; and one is a part of a Sanbitá itself.

ON THE RIGVE'DA.

The Sanbitá of the first Véda * contains mantras or prayers, which, for the most part, are encomiastick; as the name of the Rigvéda implies †. This collection is divided into eight parts (C'hasida); each of which is subdivided into as many lectures (ad'hyáya). Another mode of division also runs through the volume; distinguishing ten books (masidala), which are subdivided into more than a hundred chapters (anuváca), and comprise a thousand hymns or invocations (sucta). A further subdivision of more than two thousand sections (barga) is common to both methods: and the whole contains above ten thousand verses, or rather stanzas, of various measures.

On examining this voluminous compilation, a systematical arrangement

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^{*} I have feveral copies of it, with the corresponding index for the Sác'alya S'ác'há; and also an excellent commentary by Savan'a'cha'ava. In another collection of mantras belonging to the Arivaldyani S'ác'há of this Véda, I find the first sew sections of each lecture agree with the other copies; but the rest of the sections are oritted. I question whether it be intended as a complete copy for that S'ác'há.

⁺ Derived from the verb rich, to land; and properly fignifying any prayer or hymn, in which a deity is praifed. As those are mostly in verse, the term becomes also applicable to such passages of any Vila, as are reducible to measure according to the rules of prosody. The first Vida, in Vxx'sx's compilation, comprehending most of these texts, is called the Rigwida; or, as expressed in the Commentary on the Index, because it abounds with such texts (Rich).

is readily perceived. Succeffive chapters, and even entire books, comprife hymns of a fingle author: invocations, too, addressed to the same deities, hymns relating to like subjects, and prayers intended for similar occasions, are frequently classed together. This requires explanation.

In a regular perusal of the Véda, which is enjoined to all priests, and which is much practised by Mahráttas and Telingas, the student or reader is required to notice, especially, the author, subject, metre, and purpose of each mantra or invocation. To understand the meaning of the passage is thought less important. The institutors of the Hindu system have indeed recommended the study of the sense; but they have inculcated with equal strenuousness, and more success, attention to the name of the Riski or person, by whom the text was first uttered, the deity to whom it is addressed, or the subject to which it relates, and also its rhythm or metre, and its purpose, or the religious ceremony at which it should be used. The practice of modern priests is conformable with these maxims. Like the Koran among the Muhammedans, the Véda is put into the hands of children in the first period of their education; and continues afterwards to be read by rote, for the sake of the words without comprehension of the sense.

ACCORDINGLY the Véda is recited in various superstitious modes: word by word, either simply disjoining them, or else repeating the words alternately, backwards and forwards, once or oftener. Copies of the Rigvéda and Tajush (for the Sámavéda is chanted only) are prepared for these and other modes of recital, and are called Pada, Crama, Jatá, Ghana, &c. But the various ways of inverting the text are restricted, as it should appear, to the principal Védas; that is, to the original editions of the Rigvéda and

Yajush: while the subsequent editions, in which the text, or the arrangement of it, is varied, being therefore deemed subordinate Sác'bás, should be repeated only in a simple manner.

It feems here necessary to justify my interpretation of what is called the "Rishi of a mantra." The last term has been thought to signify an incantation rather than a prayer: and, so far as supernatural efficacy is ascribed to the mere recital of the words of a mantra, that interpretation is sufficiently accurate; and, as such, it is undoubtedly applicable to the unmeaning incantations of the Mantra-śastra, or Tantras and Agamas. But the origin of the term is certainly different. Its derivation from a verb, which signifies to speak privately," is readily explained by the injunction for meditating the text of the Veda, or reciting it inaudibly: and the import of any mantra in the Indian scriptures, is generally found to be a prayer, containing either a petition to a deity, or else thanksgiving; praise and adoration.

The Rifbi or faint of a mantra is defined, both in the index of the Rigvéda, and by commentators, "he, by whom it is spoken:" as the Dévatá, or deity, is, "that, which is therein mentioned." In the index to the Vájasanéyi Yajurvéda, the Rifbi is interpreted "the seer or rememberer" of the text; and the Dévatá is said to be "contained in the prayer; or [named] at the commencement of it; or [indicated as] the deity, who shares the oblation, or the praise." Conformably with these definitions, the deity, that is lauded or supplicated in the prayer, is its Dévatá: but in a sew passages, which contain neither petition nor adoration, the subject is considered as the deity, that is spoken of. For example, the praise of generosity is the Dévatá of many entire hymns addressed to princes, from whom gifts were received by the authors.

THE Rifbi, or speaker, is of course rarely mentioned in the mantra itself; but, in some instances, he does name himself. A few passages too, among the mantras of the Véda, are in the form of dialogue; and, in such cases, the discoursers are alternately considered as Rishi and Dévatá. In general, the person, to whom the passage was revealed, or, according to another gloss, by whom its use and application was first discovered*, is called the Rishi of that mantra. He is evidently then the author of the prayer; notwithstanding the affertions of the Hindus, with whom it is an article of their creed, that the Védas were composed by no human author. It must be understood, therefore, that, in affirming the primeval existence of their scriptures, they deny these works to be the original composition of the editor (Vyasa), but believe them to have been gradually revealed to inspired writers.

The names of the respective authors of each passage are preserved in the Anuncramani, or explanatory table of contents, which has been handed down with the Véda itself, and of which the authority is unquestioned to According to this index, Viswa'mitra is author of all the hymns contained in the third book of the Riguéda; as Bharadwa'sa is, with rare exceptions, the composer of those collected in the fixth book; Vasisht'-ha, in the seventh; Gritsamada, in the second; Vamadeva in the fourth; and Bud'ha and other descendants of Atri, in the fifth. But,

Translating literally, "the Ribi is he, by whom the text was feer." PARINI (4. ii. 7) employs the fame term in explaining the import of derivatives used as denominations of passages in scripture; and his commentators concur with those of the Fids, in the explanation here given. By Ribi is generally meant the supposed inspired writer: sometimes, however, the imagined inspirer is called the Ribi, or faint, of the text; and, at other times, as above noticed, the dialogist or speaker of the sentence.

[†] It appears from a passage in the Vijeya vilása, as also from the Védadipa, or abridged commentary on the Vájasavíys, as well as from the index itself, that Ca'tya'rana is the acknowledged author of the index to the white Yajus. That of the Rīgvéda is ascribed by the commentator, to the same Ca'tya'rana, pupil of Sauraca. The several indexes of the Véda contribute to the preservation of the genuine text; especially, where the metre, or the number of syllables, is stated; as is generally the case.

I First of the name, and progenitor of the race of Kings called children of moon.

in the remaining books of this Véda, the authors are more various: among these, besides Agastya, Casyapa son of Marichi, Angiras, Jamadagni son of Bhrigu, Para's'ara father of Vyas'a, Go'tama and his son No'd'has, Vrihaspati, Na'reda and other celebrated Indian saints, the most conspicuous are Can'wa and his numerous descendants, Me'd'ha' tit'hi &c; Mad'huch'hanbas and others among the posterity of Viswa'mitra; S'unas'e'p'ha son of Ajigarta; Cutsa, Hiran'y-Astu'ya, Savya and other descendants of Angiras; besides many other saints, among the posterity of personages abovementioned.

It is worthy of remark, that several persons of royal birth (for instance, five sons of the king VRIHANGIR; and TRAYYARUNA and TRASADA-syu, who were themselves kings;) are mentioned among the authors of the hymns, which constitute this Véda: and the text itself, in some places, actually points, and in others obviously alludes, to monarchs, whose names are samiliar in the Indian heroick history. As this fact may contribute to fix the age, in which the Véda was composed, I shall here notice such passages of this tendency, as have yet fallen under my observation.

THE fixth hymn of the eighteenth chapter of the first book, is spoken by an ascetick named Cacshi'var, in praise of the munificence of Swanaya, who had conferred immense gitts on him. The subject is continued in the seventh hymn, and concludes with a very strange dialogue between the king Bha'vayava and his wife Ro'masa', daughter of VRIHASPATI. It should be remarked concerning Cacshi'vat, that his mother Us're was bondmaid of king Anga's queen.

THE eighth book opens with an invocation, which alludes to a fingular

legend. As anga, fon of Playo'ga, and his successor on the throne, was metamorphosed into a woman; but retrieved his sex through the prayers of Me'd'hyattt'hi, whom he therefore rewarded most liberally. In this hymn he is introduced praising his own muniscence; and, towards the close of it, his wife Sas'wati', daughter of Angiras, exults in his restoration to manhood.

THE next hymns applaud the liberality of the kings VIBHINDU, PA-CAST'HAMAN (son of CURAYA'N'A), CURUNGA, CAS'U (son of CHE'DI'), and TIRINDIRA (son of PARAS'U), who had severally bestowed splendid gifts on the respective authors of these thanksgivings. In the third chapter of the same book, the seventh hymn commends the generosity of TRA-SADA'SYU, the grandson of MA'ND'HA'TR'I. The sourth chapter opens with an invocation containing praises of the liberality of CHITRA; and the sourth hymn of the same chapter celebrates VARU, son of Susha'MAN.

In the first chapter of the tenth book, there is a hymn to water, spoken by a king named Sind'hu-dwi'pa, the son of Ambarisha. The seventh chapter contains several passages, from the sisteenth to the eighteenth such a which allude to a remarkable legend. Asama'ti, son or descendant of schwa'cu, had deserted his former priests, and employed others: the for-saken Brahmanas recited incantations for his destruction; his new priests, however, not only counteracted their evil designs, but retaliated on them, and caused the death of one of those Brahmanas: the rest recited these prayers, for their own preservation, and for the revival of their companion.

THE eighth chapter opens with a hymn, which alludes to a story respecting Na'sha'ne'disht'a, son of Menu, who was excluded from participation with his brethren in the paternal inheritance. The legend

itself is told in the Aitareya Brahmafia*, or second portion of the

AMONG other hymns by royal authors, in the subsequent chapters of the tenth book of the Sanbita, I remark one by Ma'nd'ha'tr'i son of Yuvana's'wa, and another by S'IVI son of Us'inara, a third by Vasumanas son of Rohidas'wa, and a south by Pratardana son of Divo'da's a king of Cast.

The deities invoked appear, on a curfory inspection of the Vėda, to be as various as the authors of the prayers addressed to them: but, according to the most ancient annotations on the Indian scripture, those numerous names of persons and things are all resolvable into different titles of three deities, and ultimately of one god. The Nig'banti, or glossary of the Vėdas, concludes with three lists of names of deities: the first comprising such as are deemed synonymous with fire; the second, with air; and the third, with the sun +. In the last part of the Nirusta, which entirely relates to deities, it is twice afferted, that there are but three gods; 'Tisra ėva dėvatáh ‡.' The further inference, that these intend but one deity, is supported by many passages in the Vėda; and is very clearly and conceively stated in the beginning of the index to the Rigvėda, on the authority of the Nirusta, and of the Vėda itself.

minhin arms devits in farra my

In the fecond lecture and fourteenth fection of the fifth book.

⁺ Nig'banti, or firft part of the Nirnaa, C. 3.

[†] In the second and third sections of the twelfth chapter, or lecture, of the glossary and illustrations of the Vida. The Niruda confids of three parts: the first, a glossary as abovementioned, comprises five thort chapters or lectures. The second, entitled Naigama, or the first half of the Niruda properly so called, confists of fix long chapters; and the third entitled Daivata, or second half of the proper Niruda, contains eight more. The chapter, here cited, is marked as the twelfth including the glossary, or seventh exclusive of it.

'YASYA vácyam, sa rishir; yá té l'óchyaté, sá dévatá; yad acshara-parimánám, tach ch'handó. Art'hépsiva rishayó dévatás ch'handóbhir abhyad'hávan.

Author office bream by cavel anthon, in the lightenorm clas-

'Tifra éva dévatáb; cshity-antaricsha-dyu-st'náná, agnir váyuh súrya ity évam vyáhrítayah próctá vyastáh; samastánám prajápatir. O'ncára sarvadévatyah, páramésht'hyó va, bráhmó, daivó va, ád'hyátmicas. Tat tat st'háná anyás tad vibhútayah; carma prit'hactwád d'hi prithag abhid'hána stutayó bhavanty: éc'aiva vá mahán átmá dévatá; sa súrya ity áchacshaté; sa hi sarva-bhút' átmá. Tad uctam rishiná: " súrya átmá jagatas tast'bushas ch'éti." Tad vibhútayó' nyá dévatás. Tad apy étad rishin' óctam: " Indram Mitram Varusham Agnim ábur iti,"

THE Rishi [of any particular passage] is he, whose speech it is; and that, which is thereby addressed, is the deity [of the text]: and the number of syllables constitutes the metre [of the prayer]. Sages (Rishis), solicitous of [attaining] particular objects, have approached the Gods, with [prayers composed in] metre.

Bog devotal I. The turner informer, that their intend it

names of perions and the grace all relobyable into "Levent total of these

THE deities are only three; whose places are the earth, the intermediate region, and heaven: [namely] fire, air, and the sun. They are pronounced to be [the deities] of the mysterious names* severally; and (PRAJAPATI) the lord of creatures is [the deity] of the n collectively. The syllable O'm intends every deity: it belongs to (Paraméshibi) him, who dwells in the supreme abode; it appertains to (Brabme) the vast one; to (Déva) God; to (Ad'byatma) the superintending soul.

^{*} Bhur, bhuvah, and fwar; called the Vyáhritis. See Menu, c. 2. v. 76. In the original text, the nominative case is here used for the genitive; as is remarked by the Commentator, on this passage. Such irregularities are frequent in the Védar themselves.

Other deities, belonging to those several regions, are portions of the [three] Gods; for they are variously named and described, on account of their different operations: but [in fact] there is only one deity, the GREAT SOUL (Mabán átmá). He is called the sun; for he is the soul of all beings; [and] that is declared by the sage, "the soul of (jagat) "what moves, and of (tast bust) that which is fixed." Other deities are portions of him: and that is expressly declared by the sage: "The "wise call fire, Indra, Mitra and Varun'a;" &c. "

This passage of the Anucramani is partly abridged from the Niructa (c. 12); and partly taken from the Bráhmana of the Véda. It shows (what is also deducible from texts of the Indian scriptures, translated in the present and former essays), that the ancient Hindu religion, as sounded on the Indian scriptures, recognises but one God; yet not sufficiently discriminating the creature from the creator.

a magazina daj ka mi salati kada tad ali patergaldalika misa at ali ali a

THE subjects and uses of the prayers contained in the Veda, differ more than the deities which are invoked, or the titles by which they are addressed. Every line is replete with allusions to mythology †, and to the Indian notions of the divine nature and of celestial spirits. For the innumerable ceremonies to be performed by a householder, and, still more,

the many to the last thought a real world on the movement of

^{*} Niruela c. 12, § 4, ad finem. The remainder of the passage, that is here briefly cited by the author of the Index, identifies fire with the great and only soul.

^{, +} Not a mythology which avowedly exalts deified heroes (as in the Puranas); but one, which perfonifies the elements and planets; and which peoples heaven, and the world below, with various orders of beings.

I observe, however, in many places, the ground-work of legends, which are familiar in mythological poems; fuch, for example, as the demon VRITRA slain by INDRA, who is thence surnamed VRITRAHAN; but I do not remark any thing that corresponds with the favourite legends of those sects, which worship either the Linga, or Sadi, or else Rama of Crishna. I except some detached portions, the genuineness of which appears doubtful; as will be shown towards the close of this essay.

for those endless rites enjoined to hermits and asceticks, a choice of prayers is offered in every stage of the celebration. It may be here sufficient to observe, that INDRA or the firmament, fire, the sun, the moon, water, air, the spirits, the atmosphere and the earth, are the objects most frequently addressed: and the various and repeated sacrifices with fire, and the drinking of the milky juice of the moonplant or acid asclepias, furnish abundant occasion for numerous prayers adapted to the many stages of those religious rites. I shall, therefore, select for remark such prayers, as seem most singular; rather than such, as might appear the fairest specimens of this Véda.

In the fifteenth chapter of the first book, there are two hymns ascribed to Cutsa, and also to Trita son of water. Three asceticks, brothers it should seem, since they are named in another portion of the Véda as (Aptya) sons of water (Ap), were oppressed with thirst while travelling in a fandy desert. At length, they found a well; and one of them desected into it, and thence listed water for his companions: but the ungrateful brothers stole his effects, and lest him in the well, covering it with a heavy cart-wheel. In his distress he pronounced the hymns in question. It appears from the text, that Cutsa also was once in similar distress; and pronounced the same or a similar invocation: and, for this reason, the hymns have been placed by the compiler of the Véda, among those, of which Cutsa is the author.

THE twenty-third chapter of the same book commences with a dialogue between AGASTYA, INDRA and the MARUTS; and the remainder of that, with the whole of the twenty-fourth chapter, comprises twenty-six hymns addressed by AGASTYA to those divinities, and to the Aswins, fire, the sun,

^{*} Soma-latá, Asclepias acida, or Cynanchum viminale.

and some other deities. The last of these hymns was uttered by Agas-TVA under the apprehension of poison; and is directed by rituals to beused as an incantation against the effects of venom. Other incantations, applicable to the same purpose, occur in various parts of the Vėda; for example, a prayer by Vasish T'ha for preservation from poison (book 72ch. 3, §. 18).

The third book, distributed into five chapters, contains invocations by Vis'wa'mitra, son of Ga't'hin, and grandson of Cus'ica. The last hymn or Susta, in this book, consists of six prayers, one of which includes the celebrated Gáyatrí: this remarkable text is repeated, more than once, in other Védas; but, since Vis'wa'mitra is acknowledged to be the Rishi, to whom it was first revealed, it appears, that its proper and original place is in this hymn. I therefore subjoin a translation of the prayer, which contains it, as also the preceding one, (both of which are addressed to the sun;) for the sake of exhibiting the Indian priest's confession of faith with its context; after having, in former essays, given more than one version of it apart from the rest of the text. The other prayers, contained in the same Sústa, being addressed to other deities, are here omitted.

* This new and excellent praise of thee, O splendid, playful, sun (Pia. (fban)! is offered by us to thee. Be gratified by this my speech: approach this craving mind, as a fond man seeks a woman. May that sun (Pushan), who contemplates, and looks into, all worlds, be our protector.

LET US MEDITATE ON THE ADORABLE LIGHT OF THE DIVINE RULER (SAVITE) *: MAY IT GUIDE OUR INTELLECTS. Defirous of

SAYAN'A'CHA'RYA, the commentator whose gloss is here followed, considers this passage to admit of two interpretations: 'the light, or Brabme constituting the splendour, of the supreme ruler, or creaton of the universe;' or 'the light, or orb, of the splendid sun,"

food, we folicit the gift of the splendid sun (Savitri), who should be stadiously worshipped. Venerable men, guided by the understanding, salute the divine sun (Savitri) with oblations and praise.

The two last hymns, in the third chapter of the 7th book, are remarkable; as being addressed to the guardian spirit of a dwelling house, and used as prayers, to be recited with oblations, on building a house. The legend, belonging to the second of these hymns, is singular: Vasish't'ha, coming at night to the house of Varun'a, (with the intention of sleeping there, say some; but, as others affirm, with the design of stealing grain to appease his hunger after a fast of three days;) was affailed by the house dog. He uttered this prayer, or incantation, to lay assept the dog who was barking at, and attempting to bite, him. A literal version of the first of those hymns is here subjoined.

GUARDIAN of this abode! be acquainted with us; be to us a wholefome dwelling; afford us what we alk of thee; and grant happiness to
our bipeds and quadrupeds. Guardian of this house! increase both us
and our wealth. Moon! while thou art friendly, may we, with our kine
and our horses, be exempted from decrepitude: guard us, as a father proyests his offspring. Guardian of this dwelling! may we be united with a
happy, delightful and melodious abode afforded by thee: guard our wealth
now under thy protection, or yet in expectancy: and do thou defend us.'

THE fourth hymn, in the fourth chapter, concludes with a prayer to RUDRA, which, being used with oblations after a fast of three days, is supposed to ensure a happy life of a hundred years. In the fixth book, three hymns occur, which, being recited with worship to the sun, are believed to occasion a fall of rain after the lapse of five days: the two first are

aptly addressed to a cloud; and the third is so, to frogs, because these had croaked, while VASISHT'HA recited the preceding prayers, which circumstance he accepted as a good omen.

THE fixth chapter of the tenth book closes with two hymns, the prayer of which is the destruction of enemies, and which are used at facrifices for that purpose.

The feventh chapter opens with a hymn, in which Surva' furnamed Savitri', the wife of the moon *, is made the fpecker; as Dacshina' daughter of Prajarati, and Juhu daughter of Brahma', are, in fubfequent chapters +. A very fingular passage occurs in another place, containing a dialogue between Yama and his twin-fister Yamuna', whom he endeavours to seduce; but his offers are rejected by her with virtuous expostulation.

NEAR the close of the tenth chapter, a hymn, in a very different style of composition, is spoken by Va'ch daughter of Ambhr in a in praise of herself as the supreme and universal soul. Vacb, it should be observed, signifies speech; and she is the active power of Brahma, proceeding from him. The following is a literal version of this hymn, which is expounded by the commentator, consistently with the theological doctrines of the Védas.

[&]quot;This marriage is noticed in the Astariya Brahman'a, where the fecond lecture of the fourth book opens in this manner; 'Praja'rati gave his daughter, Su'rra' Sa'vitri', to Sa'ma the king.' The well known legend in the Puran'as, concerning the marriage of Soma with the daughters of Dacshi, feems to be founded on this story in the Vidas.

⁺ In the introduction to the index, these, together with other goddesses, who are reckoned authors of holy texts, are enumerated and diffinguished by the a pellation of Brahmevidins. An inspired writer is, in the masculine, termed Brahmevidin.

Towards the end of the Vribadáranyaca, Va'ch is mentioned as tecciving a revelation from AMBHI'NT, who obtained it from the fun: but here, the herfelf bears the almost fimilar patronymick AMBHRINT.

I RANGE with the Rudras, with the Vasus, with the Adityas, and with the Viśwadevas. I uphold both the fun and the ocean [MITRA and VA-RUNA], the firmament [INDRA] and fire, and both the Aswins. I fupport the moon [So'MA], destroyer [of foes]; and [the fun entitled] TWASHTRI, PUSHAN OF BHAGA. I grant wealth to the honest votary, who performs facrifices, offers oblations, and fatisfies [the deities]. Me, who am the queen, the conferrer of wealth, the poffessor of knowledge, and first of such as merit worship, the gods render, universally, present every where, and pervader of all beings. He, who eats food through me, as he, who fees, who breathes, or who hears, through me, yet knows me not, is lost; hear then the faith, which I pronounce. Even I declare this felf, who is worshipped by gods and men : I make strong, whom I choose; I make him Brabmá, holy, and wife. For Rudra I bend the bow, to flay the demon, foe of BRAHMA; for the people I make war [on their foes]; and I pervade heaven and earth. I bore the father, on the head of this [univerfal mind]; and my origin is in the midst of the ocean*: and, therefore, do I pervade all beings, and touch this heaven with my form. Originating all beings, I pass like the breeze; I am above this heaven, beyond this earth; and what is the great one, that am I.'

THE tenth chapter closes with a hymn to night; and the eleventh begins with two hymns relative to the creation of the world. Another, on this subject, was translated in a former essay it is the last hymn, but one, in the Rigvéda; and the author of it is Ac'HAMARSHAN'A (a son

Heaven, or the fky, is the father; as expressly declared in another place: and the fky is produced from mind, according to one more passage of the Vidar. Its birth is therefore placed on the head of the supreme mind. The commentator suggests three interpretations of the sequel of the stanza: "my parent, the holy Ambbrina, is in the midst of the ocean;" or "my origin, the sentient deity, is in waters, which constitute the bodies of the gods;" or "the sentient god, who is in the midst of the waters, which pervade intellect, is try origin."

⁺ Afarica Refearches, Vol. V, p. 3614

of Mad'huch'handas), from whom it takes the name by which it is generally cited. The other hymns, of which a version is here subjoined, are not ascribed to any ascertained author. Praja Pati, surnamed Paramésht'hi, and his son Yajnya, are stated as the original speakers. But, of these names, one is a title of the primeval spirit; and the other seems to allude to the allegorical immolation of Brabmá.

I. 'THEN was there no entity, nor nonentity; no world, nor sky, nor ought above it: nothing, any where, in the happiness of any one, involving or involved: nor water, deep and dangerous. Death was not; nor then was immortality: nor distinction of day or night. But THAT* breathed without afflation, single with (Swad'bá) her who is sustained within him. Other than him, nothing existed, [which] since [has been.] Darkness there was; [for] this universe was enveloped with darkness, and was undistinguishable [like fluids mixed in] waters: but that mass, which was covered by the husk, was [at length] produced by the power of contemplation. First desire was formed in his mind: and that became the original productive feed; which the wise, recognising it by the intellect in their hearts, distinguish, in nonentity, as the bond of entity.'

Did the luminous ray of these [creative acts] expand in the middle? or above? or below? That productive seed, at once, became providence [or sentient souls], and matter [or the elements]: she, who is sustained within himself, was inferior; and he, who heeds, was superior.

^{*} The pronoun (tad), thus emphatically used, is understood to intend the supreme being according to the doctrines of the Védánta. When manifested by creation, he is the entity (fat); while forms, being mere illusion, are nonentity (asat). The whole of this hymn is expounded according to the received doctrines of the Indian theology, or Védánta. Darkness and desire (Tamas and Câma) bear a distant resemblance to the Chaos and Eros of Hesson. Theog. v. 116.

⁺ So Sevad'há is expounded: and the commentator makes it equivalent to Máyá, or the world of ideas.

- "Wno knows exactly, and who shall in this world declare, whence and why this creation took place? The gods are subsequent to the production of this world: then who can know whence it proceeded? or whence this varied world arose? or whether it uphold [itself], or not? He, who, in the highest heaven, is the ruler of this universe, does indeed know; but not another can possess that knowledge."
- II. * THAT victim, who was wove with threads on every fide, and stretched by the labors of a hundred and one gods, the fathers, who wove and framed and placed the warp and woof, do worship. The [first] male spreads and encompasses this [web]; and displays it in this world and in heaven: these rays [of the creator] assembled at the altar, and prepared the holy strains, and the threads of the warp.
- What was the fize of that divine victim, whom all the gods facrificed? What was his form? what the motive? the fence? the metre? the oblation? and the prayer? First was produced the Gáyatri joined with fire; next the sun (Savitri) attended by Ushnib; then the splendid moon with Anushtubh, and with prayers; while Vribati accedification of VRIHASPATI (or the planet JUPITER.) Kiráti was supported by the sun and by water (MITRA and VARUN'A); but the [middle] portion of the day and Trishtubb were here the attendants of INDRA; Jagati sollowed all the gods: and, by that [universal] sacrifice, sages and men were formed.
- WHEN that ancient facrifice was completed, fages, and men, and our progenitors, were by him formed. Viewing with an observant mind this oblation, which primeval saints offered, I venerate them. The seven inspired sages, with prayers and with thanksgivings, follow the

path of these primeval saints, and wisely practise [the performance of sacrifices,] as charioteers use reins [to guide their steeds.]

Some parts of these hymns bear an evident resemblance to one, which has been before cited from the white Yajush*, and to which I shall again advert in speaking of that Véda. The commentator on the Rigvéda quotes it to supply some omissions in this text. It appears also, on the saith of his citations, that passages, analogous to these, occur in the Taittiriyaca or black Yajush, and also in the Bráhmasha of the Véda.

THE hundred and one gods, who are the agents in the framing of the universe typisied by a sacrifice, are, according to this commentator, the vyears of Brahma's life, or his afflations personified in the form of Anais GIRAS &c. The seven sages, who instituted sacrifices in imitation of the primeval type, are Mari'chi and others. Gayarri, Ushnib &c. are names of metres, or of the various lengths of stanzas and measured verses, in the Védas.

THE preceding quotations may be sufficient to show the style of this part of the Véda; which comprehends the prayers and invocations

Another part belonging, as it appears, to the same Vėda, is entitled Antaréya Brábmaña. It is divided into eight books (panjica), each containing sive chapters or lectures (ad'byáya), and subdivided into an unequal number of sections (e'banda), amounting in the whole to two hundred and eighty-five. Being partly in prose, the number of distinct passages contained in those multiplied sections need not be indicated.

[.] Affatick Refearches, Vol. VII, p. 251.

For want either of a complete commentary*, or of an explanatory index †, I cannot undertake from a curfory perulal, to describe the whole contents of this part of the Véda. I observe, however, many curious passages in it, especially towards the close. The seventh book had treated of facrifices performed by kings: the subject is continued in the first sour chapters of the eighth book; and three of these relate to a ceremony for the consecration of kings, by pouring on their heads, while seated on a throne prepared for the purpose, water mixed with honey, clarified butter, and spirituous liquor, as well as two sorts of grass and the sprouts of corn. This ceremony, called Abhishèca, is celebrated on the accession of a king; and subsequently, on divers occasions, as part of the rites belonging to certain solemn facrifices performed for the attainment of paraticular objects.

THE mode of its celebration is the subject of the second chapter of the eighth book; or thirty-seventh chapter, reckoned (as is done by the commentator) from the beginning of the Aitaréya. It contains an instance, which is not singular in the Védas, though it be rather uncommon in their didactick portion, of a disquisition on a difference of opinic among inspired authors. 'Some,' it says, 'direct the consecration to be completed with the appropriate prayer, but without the sacred words (Vyáhrītis), which they here deem superstuous: others, and particularly Satyacama son of Jabala, enjoin the complete recitation of those words, for reasons explained at full length; and UDDALACA, son of Aruna, has therefore so ordained the performance of the ceremony.'

^{*} I possess three entire copies of the text, but a part only of the commentary by Sa'ran'a'CHA'RYA.

The index, before mentioned, does not extend to this part of the Véda.

THE subject of this chapter is concluded by the following remarkable passage. 'Well knowing all the sefficacy of confectation], JANAMEJAYA, fon of PARICSHIT, declared; "Priests, conversant with this ceremony, assist me, who am likewise apprized [of its benefits], to celebrate the folemn rite. Therefore, do I conquer [in single combat]; therefore, do I deseat arrayed forces with an arrayed army: neither the arrows of the gods, nor those of men, reach me: I shall live the full period of life; I shall remain master of the whole earth." Truly neither the arrows of the gods, nor those of men, do reach him, whom well instructed priests assist in celebrating the solemn rite: he lives the full period of life; he remains master of the whole earth.'

THE thirty-eighth chapter (or 3d of the Sth book) describes a suppofed consecration of INDRA, when elected by the gods to be their king. It consists of similar, but more solemn, rites; including, among other peculiarities, a fanciful construction of his throne with texts of the Véda; besides a repetition of the ceremony of consecration in various regions, to ensure universal dominion. This last part of the description merits to be quoted, on account of the geographical hints, which it contains,

AFTER [his inauguration by PRAJAPATI], the divine Vafus confecrated him in the eastern region, with the same prayers in verse and in prose, and with the same holy words, [as before mentioned,] in thirty-one days, to ensure his just domination. Therefore, [even now,] the several kings of the Prachyas, in the East, are consecrated, after the practice of the gods, to equitable rule (Sámrájya); and [people] call those consecrated princes, Samráj.**

Similar Local tot ook duly

^{*} In the nominative case, Samrát', Samrád or Samrál; substituting in this place a liquid letter, which is peculiar to the Véda, and to the southern dialects of India; and which approaches, in found, to the common I.

- NEXT the divine Rudras confecrated him in the fouthern region, with the same prayers in verse and in prose, and with the same holy words, in thirty-one days, to ensure increase of happiness. Therefore, the several kings of the Satwats, in the south, are confecrated, after the practice of the gods, to the increase of enjoyment (Bhójya); and [people] name those confecrated princes, Bhója.
- "THEN the divine Adityas confecrated him in the western region, with &c., to ensure sole dominion. Therefore, the several kings of the Nichyas and Apáchyas, in the West, are confecrated &c. to sole dominion; and [people] denominate them Swaraj. *
- "AFTERWARDS all the gods (Viswe deva) consecrated him in the northern region, with &c., to ensure separate domination. Therefore, the several [deities, who govern the] countries of Uttara curu and Uttara madra beyond Himavat, in the North, are consecrated &c. to distinct rule (Vairájya), and [people] term them Viráj.
- 'Next the divine Sád'hyas and Aptyas consecrated him, in this middle, central and present region, with &c., for local dominion. Therefore, the several kings of Curu and Panchála, as well as Vasa and Usinara, in the middle, central and present region, are consecrated &c. to sovereignty (Rájya); and [people] entitle them Rájá.
- LASTLY the Maruts, and the gods named Angiras, confecrated him, in the upper region, with &c., to promote his attainment of the supreme

[.] In the nominative case, Savarát, Savarád, or Savarál,

⁺ In the nominative, Virái, Virái, or Virál,

abode, and to enfure his mighty domination, superior rule, independent power, and long reign: and, therefore, he became a supreme deity (Paramésht'bs) and ruler over creatures.

THUS confectated by that great inauguration, INDRA subdued all conquerable [earths], and won all worlds: he obtained, over all the gods, supremacy, transcendent rank and pre-eminence. Conquering, in this world [below], equitable domination, happiness, sole dominion, separate authority, attainment of the supreme abode, sovereignty, mighty power and superior rule; becoming a self-existent being and independent ruler, exempt from [early] dissolution; and reaching all [his] wishes in that celestial world; he became immortal: he became immortal.*

THE thirty-ninth chapter is relative to a peculiarly folemn rite, performed in imitation of the fabulous inauguration of INDRA. It is imagined that this celebration becomes a cause of obtaining great power and universal monarchy; and the three last sections of the chapter recite instances of its successful practice. Though replete with enormous and absurd exaggerations, they are here translated at full length, as not unimportant, since many kings are mentioned, whose names are familiar in the heroick of sory of India.

§. vii. 'By this great inauguration fimilar to INDRA's, TURA, fon of CAVASHA, confecrated JANAME'JAYA fon of PARICSHIT; and, therefore, did JANAME'JAYA, fon of PARICSHIT, subdue the earth completely,

[•] In the didactick portion of the Véda, the last term, in every chapter, is repeated to indicate its conclusion. This repetition was not preserved in a former quotation, from the necessity of varying considerably the order of the words,

all around, and traverse it every way, and perform a sacrifice with a horse as an offering.

- "Concerning that folemn facrifice, this verse is universally chanted.
 "In Asandivat, Janame java bound [as an offering] to the gods, a horse fed with grain, marked with a white star on his forehead, and bearing a green wreath round his neck."
- BY this &c. CHYAVANA, fon of BHRIGU, confecrated SA'RYA'TA fprung from the race of Menu: and, therefore, did he subdue &c. He became likewise a householder in the service of the gods.
- By this, &c. So'MAS'USHMAN, grandson of VAJARATNA, confecrated 'SATA'NI'CA son of SATRA'JIT: and, therefore, did he subdue &c.
- * By this &c. PARVATA and NAREDA confecrated A'MBA'SHT'HYA: and, therefore, &c.
- By this &c. PARVATA and NA'REDA confectated YUD'HA'NS'RAUSH-
- BY this &c. CASYAPA confecrated VISWACARMAN fon of BHUVA-NA; and, therefore, did he subdue &c.
- *THE earth, as fages relate, thus addressed him: "No mortal has a right to give me away; yet thou, O VIS'WACARMAN son of BHUVANA, dost wish to do so. I will fink in the midst of the waters; and vain has been thy promise to Cas'yapa."*

So great was the efficacy of confecration, observes the commentator in this place, that the submersion of the earth was thereby prevented, notwithstanding this declaration.

By this &c. VASISHT'HA confecrated Sudas fon of PIJAVANA; and, therefore, &c.

By this &c. SAMVARTA, fon of ANGIRAS, confecrated MARUTTA fon of AVICSHIT: and, therefore, &c.

On that subject this verse is every where chanted, "The divine Maruts dwelt in the house of Maruta, as his guards; and all the gods were companions of the son of Avicshit, whose every wish was fulfilled."*

§ VIII. By this great inauguration similar to Indra's, Udamaya, son of Atri, consecrated Anga: and, therefore, did Anga subdue the earth completely all around, and traverse it every way, and perform a sacrifice with a horse as an offering.

on fome facrifice] "Invite me to this folemn rite, and I will give thee [to complete it], holy man! ten thousand elephants and ten thousand female flaves."

On that subject these verses are every where chanted "Of the cows, for which the sons of PRIVAME'D'HA affisted UDAMAYA in the solemn rite, this son of ATRI gave them, [every day] at noon, two thousand each, out of a thousand millions.

"THE fon of VIRO'CHANA [ANGA] unbound and gave, while his priest performed the solemn sacrifice, eighty thousand white horses sit for use.

^{*} All this, observes the commentator, was owing to his solemn inauguration,

- THE fon of ATRI bestowed in gifes ten thousand women adorned with necklaces, all daughters of opulent persons, and brought from various countries.
- WHILE distributing ten thousand elephants in Avachatruca, the holy fon of ATRI grew tired and dispatched messengers to finish the distribution.
- "A HUNDRED [I give] to you;" "A hundred to you:" still the holy man grew tired; and was at last forced to draw breath, while bestowing them by thousands."
- § IX. 'By this great inauguration, fimilar to INDRA'S, DIRG'HATAMAS fon of MAMATA' confecrated BHARATA the fon of DUHSHANTA; †
 and, therefore, did BHARATA, fon of DUHSHANTA, fubdue the earth
 completely all around, and traverse it every way, and perform repeated
 facrifices with horses as offerings.
- On that subject too, these verses are every where chanted. "BHA-RATA distributed in Mashhara ‡ a hundred and seven thousand millions of black elephants with white tusks and decked with gold.
 - " A SACRED fire was lighted for BHARATA fon of DUHSHANTA, in

^{*} It was through the folemn inauguration of Anga, that his prieft was able to give fuch great alms. This remark is by the Commentator.

⁺ So the name should be written, as appears from this passage of the Véda; and not, as in copies of some of the Furan as, Dushmanta or Dushmanta.

[†] The feveral manufcripts differ on this name of a country; and, having no other information respecting it, I am not confident that I have sclected the best reading. This observation is applicable also to some other uncommon names,

Sáchiguna, at which a thousand Brábmanas shared a thousand millions of cows apiece. The harms stranger blades par invergence Bad world at

miles of the of Landers of Son

" BHARATA, fon of DUHSHANTA, bound feventy-eight horses [for solemn rites] near the Yamuna; and fifty-five, in Vritrag'bna on the Ganga. The same and find cont art subdul me is some or about his

and therefore, I return the thirtheological and sector of the

" HAVING thus bound a hundred and thirty-three horses fit for facred rites, the fon of DUHSHANTA became preeminently wife, and furpaffed the prudence of [every rival] king.

THEREFORE let not a foldier be ungrateful towards the prieft, was

- "THIS great achievement of BHARATA, neither former nor later persons [have equalled]; the five classes of men have not attained his feats. any more than a mortal [can reach] heaven with his hands," #
- THE holy faint, VRIHADUCT'HA, taught this great inauguration to DURMUC'HA king of Panchala; and, therefore, DURMUC'HA, the Pánchála, being a king, fubdued by means of that knowledge the whole earth around, and traversed it every way. +

Aviously to the communication of that they may ledge, to the

. THE fon of SATYAHAVYA, fprung from the race of VASISHT'HA, communicated this great inauguration to ATYARATI fon of JANANTAPA: and therefore, ATYARA'TI fon of JANANTAPA, being no king, | nevertheless] subdued by means of that knowledge the whole earth around, and traversed it every way.

^{*} All this, fays the commentator, flows the efficacy of inauguration.

⁺ It is here remarked in the commentary, that a Brabman'a, being incompetent to receive confectations is however capable of knowing its form : the efficacy of which knowledge is shown in this place. D'd d 2 my | noital tada tel celters

"Thou hast conquered the whole earth around; [now] aggrandize me." ATYARA'TI, son of JANANTAPA, replied; "When I conquer Uttaracuru, then thou shalt be king of the earth, holy man! and I will be merely thy general." SA'TYAHAVYA rejoined; "That is the land of the gods; no mortal can subdue it: thou hast been ungrateful towards me; and, therefore, I resume from thee this [power]." Hence the king S'USH-MIN'A son of Sivi, destroyer of soes, slew ATYARA'TI who was [thus] divested of vigour and deprived of strength.

'THEREFORE let not a foldier be ungrateful towards the priest, who is acquainted [with the form,] and practises [the celebration, of this ceremony]; lest he lose his kingdom, and forfeit his life: lest he forfeit his life.'

To elucidate this last story, it is necessary to observe, that, before the commencement of the ceremony of inauguration, the priest swears the soldier by a most solemn oath, not to injure him. A similar oath, as is observed in this place by the commentator, had been administered previously to the communication of that knowledge, to which Atyara to owed his success. The priest considered his answer as illusory and insulting, because Uttara Curu, being north of Méru, is the land of the gods, and cannot be conquered by men: as this ungrateful answer was a breach of his oath, the priest withdrew his power from him; and, in consequence, he was slain by the foe.

THE fortieth and last chapter of the Aitareya Brabmaka relates to the benefit of entertaining a Purbbita, or appointed priest; the selection of a proper person for that station; and the mode of his appointment by the

king; together with the functions to be discharged by him. The last section describes rites to be performed, under the directions of such a priest, for the destruction of the king's enemies. As it appears curious, the whole description is here translated; abridging, however, as in other instances, the frequent repetitions, with which it abounds.

- NEXT then [is described] destruction around air (Brahme).* Foes, enemies, and rivals, perish around him, who is conversant with these rites. That, which [moves] in the atmosphere, is air (Brahme), around which perish five deities, lightning, rain, the moon, the sun, and fire.
- LIGHTNING, having flashed, disappears behind rain: tit vanishes, and none know [whither it is gone]. When a man dies, he vanishes; and none know [whither his foul is gone]. Therefore, whenever lightning perishes, pronounce this [prayer]; "May my enemy perish: may he disappear, and none know [where he is]." Soon, indeed, none will know [whither he is gone].
- *RAIN, having fallen, [evaporates and] disappears within the moon, &c. When rain ceases, pronounce this [prayer], &c.
- * THE moon, at the conjunction, disappears within the sun, &c. When the moon is dark, pronounce &c.
- 'THE fun, when fetting, disappears in fire, &c. ‡ When the fun fets, pronounce &c.'

^{*} So this observance is denominated, viz. Brahman ab parimarah.

⁺ Behind a cloud.

[†] The Taittiriya Yajuswéda contains a passage, which may serve to explain this notion; The sun, at eve, penetrates fire; and, therefore, fire is seen afar at night; for both are luminous."

- FIRE, ascending, disappears in air, &c. When fire is extinguished, pronounce &c.
- THESE same deities are again produced from this very origin. Fire is born of air; for, urged with force by the breath, it increases. Viewing it, pronounce [this prayer], "May fire be revived; but not my foe be reproduced; may be depart averted." Therefore, does the enemy go far away."
- THE fun is born of fire . Viewing it, fay " May the fun rife; but not my foe be reproduced, &c."
- * THE moon is born of the fun +. Viewing it, fay " May the moon be renewed, &c.
- RAIN is produced from the moon ‡. Viewing it, say "May rain be produced, &c.
- * LIGHTNING comes of rain. Viewing it, fay " May lightning ap-
- * Such is destruction around air. MAITREYA, son of Cusha'ru, communicated these rites to Sutwan son of Ciris'A, descended from Bha'rga. Five kings perished around him; and Sutwan attained greatness.

^{*} At night, as the commentator now observes, the sun disappears in fire: but reappears thence next day. Accordingly, fire is destitute of splendour by day, and the sun shines brighter.

⁺ The moon, as is remarked in the commentary, disappears within the sun at the conjunction; but is reproduced from the sun, on the first day of the bright fortnight.

[#] Here the commentator remarks, Rain enters the lunar orb, which confilts of water; and, at a fubfoquent time, it is reproduced from the moon.

THE observance [enjoined] to him [who undertakes these rites, is, as follows]: let him not sit down earlier than the soe; but stand, while he thinks him standing. Let him not lie down earlier than the soe; but sit, while he thinks him sitting. Let him not sleep earlier than the soe; but wake, while he thinks him waking. Though his enemy had a head of stone, soon does he slay him: he does slay him.

BEFORE I quit this portion of the Véda, I think it right to add, that the elose of the seventh book contains the mention of several monarchs; to whom the observance, there described, was taught by divers sages. For a reason beforementioned I shall subjoin the names. They are ViswanTARA son of Sushadman; Sahade'va son of Sarja, and his son So'maca; Babhru son of De'va'vrid'ha, Bhima of Vidarbha,
Nagnajit of Gand'ha'ra, Sanas'ruta of Arindama, R'ituvid of Janaca; besides Janame'jaya and Suda's, who have been also noticed in another place.

THE Aitareya Aranyaca is another portion of the R'gvéda. It comprises eighteen chapters or lectures unequally distributed in five books (Aranyaca). The second, which is the longest, for it contains seven lectures, constitutes with the third an Upanishad of this Véda, entitled the Babvrich Brahmana Upanishad; or, more commonly, the Aitaréya, as having been recited by a sage named AITAREYA*. The four last lectures of that second Aranyaca, are particularly consonant to the theological doetrines of the Védánta; and are accordingly selected by theologians of the

It is so affirmed by Anandati'rt'ha in his notes: and he, and the commentator, whom he annotates, that the original speaker of this Upanibad to be Mahida'sa, an incarnation of Nara'van'a, proceeding from Vis'a'la son of Abja. He adds, that, on the sudden appearance of this deity at a solemn celebration, the whole affembly of gods and priests fainted: but, at the intercession of Brahma', they were revived;

Védántí school, as the proper Aitaréya Upanishad *. The following is literally translated from this portion of the second A'ranyaca.

THE AITARÉYA ÁRANYA. B. 2.

thing else whatsoever existed, active [or inactive]. He thought, "I will create worlds:" thus HE created these [various] worlds; water, light, mortal [beings] and the waters. That "water" is the [region] above the heaven, which heaven upholds; the atmosphere comprises light; the earth is mortal; and the regions below are "the waters." +

and, after making their obeisance, they were instructed in holy science: this Avatara was called Mahtda's, because those venerable personages (Mabin) declared themselves his slaves (dasa).

In the concluding title of one transcript of this Aradya, I find it ascribed to A'swala'yana: probably, by an error of the transcriber. On the other hand, Saunaca appears to be author of some texts of the Aradya; for a passage, from the second lecture of the fifth (Ar. 5, lect. 2, § 11), is cited as Saunaca's, by the commentator on the prayers of the Rigorida (lect. 1, § 15).

I have two copies of Sancara's commentary, and one of annotations on his gloss by Na'ra'ran'e'nDRA; likewife a copy of Sa'ran'a's commentary on the same theological tract, and also on the third Aran'yaca; besides annotations by Anandare'ra'ha on a different gloss, for the entire Upanishad. The concluding prayer, or seventh lecture of the second Aran'yaca, was omitted by Sancara, as sufficiently perspicuous: but is expounded by Sa'ran'a, whose exposition is the same, which is added by Sancara's
commentator; and which transcribers sometimes subjoin to Sancara's gloss.

As an instance of fingular and needless frauds, I must mention, that the work of Anandati'at'ha was fold to me, under a different title, as a commentary on the Taittiriya fanhita of the Yajarveda. The running titles, at the end of each chapter, had been altered accordingly. On examination, I found it to be a different, but valuable work; as above described.

+ Ambbas water; and A'pas the waters. The commentators assign reasons for these synonymous terms being employed, severally, to denote the regions above the sky, and those below the earth.

"HE thought, "these are indeed worlds; I will create guardians of worlds." Thus HE drew from the waters, and framed, an embodied being *. HE viewed him; and of that being, so contemplated, the mouth opened as an egg: from the mouth, speech issued; from speech, fire proceeded. The nostrils spread; from the nostrils, breath passed; from breath, air was propagated. The eyes opened: from the eyes, a glance sprung; from that glance, the sun was produced. The ears dilated: from the ears, came hearkening; and from that, the regions of space. The skin expanded: from the skin, hair rose; from that, grew herbs and trees. The breast opened; from the breast, mind issued: and, from mind, the moon. The navel burst: from the navel, came deglutition; from that, death. The generative organ burst: thence slowed productive feed; whence waters drew their origin.

"THESE deities, being thus framed, fell into this vast ocean; and to HIM they came with thirst and hunger: and HIM they thus addressed; "Grant us a [smaller] fize, wherein abiding we may eat food." He offered to them [the form of] a cow: they said, "that is not sufficient for us." He exhibited to them [the form of] a horse: They said, "neither is that sufficient for us." He showed them the human form: they exclaimed: "well doned ab! wonderful!" Therefore man alone is [pro-nounced to be] "well formed."

"HE bade them occupy their respective places. Fire, becoming speech, entered the mouth. Air, becoming breath, proceeded to the nos-

when road. He attempted to eated it by hearing a but comid not hald in

^{*} Purusa: a human form.

[†] Apána. From the analogy between the acts of inhaling and of swallowing, the latter is considered as a fort of breath or inspiration: hence the air, drawn in by deglutition, is reckoned one of five breaths, or airs inhaled into the body.

trils. The fun, becoming fight, penetrated the eyes. Space became hearing and occupied the ears. Herbs and trees became hair and filled the fkin. The moon, becoming mind, entered the breast. Death, becoming deglutition, penetrated the navel; and water became productive seed and occupied the generative organ.

- HUNGER and thirst addressed him, saying "Assign us [our places]."
 HE replied: "You I distribute among these deities; and I make you participant with them." Therefore is it, that to whatever deity an oblation is offered, hunger and thirst participate with him.
- "HE reflected, "These are worlds, and regents of worlds: for them I will frame food." HE viewed the waters: from waters, so contemplated, form issued; and food is form, which was so produced.
- Being thus framed, it turned away, and fought to flee. The [prime-val] man endeavoured to seize it by speech; but could not attain it by his voice: had he by voice taken it, [hunger] would be satisfied by naming food. He attempted to catch it by his breath; but could not inhale it by breathing: had he by inhaling taken it, [hunger] would be satisfied by smelling food. He sought to snatch it by a glance; but could not surprise it by a look: had he seized it by the sight, [hunger] would be satisfied by seeing food. He attempted to catch it by hearing: but could not hold it by listening: had he caught it by hearkening, [hunger] would be satisfied by hearing food. He endeavoured to seize it by his skin; but could not restrain it by his touch: had he seized it by contact, [hunger] would be satisfied by touching food. He wished to reach it by the mind; but could not attain it by thinking: had he caught it by thought, [hunger] would be satisfied by meditating on food. He wanted to seize it by the generative

organ, but could not so hold it: had he thus seized it, [hunger] would be satisfied by emission. Lastly, he endeavoured to catch it by deglutition; and thus he did swallow it: that air, which is so drawn in, seizes food; and that very air is the bond of life.

- "He [the univerfal foul] reflected "How can this [body] exist without me?" He considered by which extremity he should penetrate. He thought, "If [without me] speech discourse, breath inhale, and sight view; if hearing hear, skin feel, and mind meditate; if deglutition swallow, and the organ of generation perform its functions; then who am I?"
- * PARTING the future [siman], HE penetrated by this route. That opening is called the future (vidriti), and is the road to beatitude (nándana) *.
- OF that foul, the places of recreation are three; and the modes of fleep, as many: this (pointing to the right eye) is a place of recreation; this (pointing to the throat) is [also] a fituation of enjoyment; this (pointing to the beart) is [likewise] a region of delight.
- THUS born [as the animating spirit], he discriminated the elements, [remarking] "what else [but him] can I here affirm [to exist];" and he contemplated this [thinking] person +, the vast expanse; [exclaiming] IT have I seen. Therefore is he named IT-SEEING (IDAM-DRA); IT-SEEING is indeed his name: and him, being IT-SEEING, they call, by a

The Hindus believe, that the foul, or confcious life, enters the body through the fagittal future; lodges in the brain; and may contemplate, through the fame opening, the divine perfections. Mind, or the reasoning faculty, is reckoned to be an organ of the body, fituated in the heart.

⁺ Purufba.

¹ Brabme, or the great one.

ment [of their name]. The gods delight in privacy *.

- § V. This [living principle] is first, in man, a fetus, or productive feed, which is the essence drawn from all the members [of the body]: thus the man nourishes himself within himself. But, when he emits it into woman, he procreates that [fetus]: and such is its first birth.
- body, it does not destroy her. She cherishes his ownself †, thus received within her; and, as nurturing him, she ought to be cherished [by him]. The woman nourishes that setus: but he previously cherished the child, and surther does so after its birth. Since he supports the child before and after birth, he cherishes himself: and that, for the perpetual succession of persons; for thus are these persons perpetuated. Such is his second birth.
- "THIS [second] self becomes his representative for holy acts [of religion]: and that other [self], having sulfilled its obligations, and completed its period of life, deceases. Departing hence, he is born again [in some other shape]: and such is his third birth.
- "This was declared by the holy fage. "Within the womb, I have recognifed all the fuccessive births of these deities. A hundred bodies, like iron chains, hold me down: yet, like a falcon, I swiftly rife." Thus spoke Va'MADEVA, reposing in the womb: and possessing this [intuitive] knowledge, he rose, after bursting that corporeal consinement;

^{*} Here, as at the conclusion of every division of an Upanifload, or of any chapter in the didactick portion of the Vidas, the last phrase is repeated.

t For the man is identified with the child procreated by him,

and, ascending to the blissful region of heaven,* he attained every wish and became immortal. He became immortal.

§. VI. 'WHAT is this foul? that we may worship him. Which is the foul? Is it that, by which [a man sees]? by which he hears? by which he smells odours? by which he utters speech? by which he discriminates a pleasant or unpleasant taste? is it the heart [or understanding]? or the mind [or will]? Is it sensation? or power? or discrimination? or comprehension? or perception? or retention? or attention? or application? or haste [or pain]? or memory? or affent? or determination? or animal action †? or wish? or defire?

ALL those are only various names of apprehension. But this [soul, consisting in the faculty of apprehension,] is BRAHMA'; he is INDRA; he is (PRAJA'PATI) the lord of creatures: these gods are he; and so are the five primary elements, earth, air, the etherial fluid, water and light \(\frac{1}{2}\): these, and the same joined with minute objects and other seeds [of existence], and [again] other [beings] produced from eggs, or borne in wombs, or originating in hot moisture, \(\preceip\) or springing from plants; whether horses, or kine, or men, or elephants, whatever lives, and walks or slies, or whatever is immovable [as herbs and trees]: all that is the eye of intelligence. On intellect [every thing] is founded: the world is the eye of intellect; and intellect is its soundation. Intelligence is (Brabme) the great one.

[·] Swarga: or place of celeftial blifs.

⁺ Afa: the unconscious volition, which occasions an act necessary to the support of life, as breathing &c.

[†] BRAHMA' (in the masculine gender) here denotes, according to commentators, the intelligent spirit, whose birth was in the mundane egg; from which he is named HIRANYAGARBHA. INDRA is the chief of the gods or subordinate deities; meaning the elements and planets. PRAJAPATI is the first embedded spirit, called VIRA'J, and described in the preceding part of this extract. The gods are fire and the rest, as there stated.

Wermin and infects are supposed to be generated from hot moisture.

By this [intuitively] intelligent foul, that fage ascended from the present world to the blissful region of heaven; and, obtaining all his wishes, became immortal. He became immortal.

May my speech be founded on understanding: and my mind be attentive to my utterance. Be thou manifested to me, O self manifested [intellect]! For my sake [O speech and mind!] approach this Véda. May what I have heard, be unforgotten: day and night may I behold this, which I have studied. Let me think the reality: let me speak the truth. May it preserve me; may it preserve the teacher: me may it preserve; the teacher may it preserve: the teacher may it preserve; may it preserve the teacher.

ON THE CAUSHITACÍ.

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Another Upanishad of this Vėda, appertaining to a particular S'ác'bá of it, is named from that, and from the Brábmaña, of which it is an extract, Caushitaci Brábmaña Upanishad. From an abridgment of it (for I have not seen the work at large), it appears to contain two dialogues; one, in which Indra instructs Pratardana in theology; and another, in which Asa'tas'atru, king of Ca's'i, communicates divine knowledge to a priest named Ba'la'ci. A similar conversation between these two persons is found likewise in the Vr'had árañya of the Tajurvéda; as will be subsequently noticed. Respecting the other contents of the Brábmaña, from which these dialogues are taken, I have not yet obtained any satisfactory information.

^{*} This, like other prayers, is denominated a mantra; though it be the conclusion of an Upanifle ad.

THE abridgment abovementioned occurs in a metrical paraphrase of twelve principal Upanishads, in twenty chapters, by VIDYA'RAN'YA, the preceptor of MADHAVA áchárya. He expressly states Caushitaci as the name of a S'áchá of the Rigvéda.

THE original of the Caushitaci was among the portions of the Véda, which Sir Robert Chambers collected at Benares; according to a list, which he sent to me, some time before his departure from India. A fragment of an Upanishad, procured at the same place by Sir Williams Jones, and given by him to Mr. Blaquiere, is marked in his hand writing "The beginning of the Caushitaci." In it, the dialogists are Chitra surnamed Gangayani, and Swetacetu with his father Uddalaca son of Aruna.

I SHALL resume the consideration of this portion of the Rigvéda, whenever I have the good fortune to obtain the complete text and commentary, either of the Brábmańa, or of the Upanishad, which bears this title.

ON THE WHITE YAJURVE'DA.

THE Vájafanéyi, or white Yajush, is the shortest of the Védas; so far as respects the first and principal part, which comprehends the Mantras. The Sanbitá, or collection of prayers and invocations belonging to this Véda, is comprised in forty lectures (Ad'byáya), unequally subdivided into numerous short sections (candicá); each of which, in general, constitutes a prayer or Mantra. It is also divided, like the Rigvéda, into Anuvácas or

chapters. The number of Anuvácas, as they are stated at the close of the index to this Véda, appears to be two hundred and eighty-six: the number of sections or verses, nearly two thousand (or exactly 1987). But this includes many repetitions of the same text in divers places. The lectures are very unequal, containing from thirteen to a hundred and seventeen sections (candicá)*.

THOUGH called the Yajurvéda, it confifts of passages, some of which are denominated Rich, while only the rest are strictly Yajush. The first are, like the prayers of the Riguéda, in metre: the others are either in measured prose, containing from one to a hundred and six syllables; or such of them, as exceed that length, are considered to be prose reducible to no measure.

CHITAG SCHOOL CAMERICAN, and Swallage To with bit !

THE Yajurvéda relates chiefly to oblations and facrifices, as the name itself implies †. The first chapter, and the greatest part of the second, contain prayers adapted for facrifices at the full and change of the moon: but the fix last sections regard oblations to the manes. The subject of the third chapter is the consecration of a perpetual fire, and the facrifice of victims: the five next relate chiefly to a ceremony called Agnishtóma, which includes that of drinking the juice of the acid asclepias. The two following relate to the Vájapéya and Rájasúyá; the last of which ceremonies involves the consecration of a king. Eight chapters, from the eleventh to the eighteenth, regard the sanctifying of facrificial fire; and the ceremony, named Sautrámani, which was the subject of the last section of the tenth chapter, occupies three other chapters from the nineteenth to the twenty-sirst. The prayers, to be used at an Aśwamétba, or ceremony em-

Thave feveral copies of Ma'D'HYANDINA's white Tajulb, one of which is accompanied by a commentary entitled Védadipa; the author of which, Mahi'D'HARA, confulted the commentaries of UVAT'A and Ma'D'HAVA, as he himself informs us in his preface.

⁺ Tajnsh is derived from the verb Taj to worship or adore. Another etymology is sometimes assigned:
but this is most consistent with the subject; viz. (Tajnya) sherislees, and (boma) oblations to sire.

blematick of the immolation of a horse and other animals, by a king ambitious of universal empire, are placed in sour chapters, from the twenty-second to the twenty-sisth. The two next are miscellaneous chapters; the Sautrāmańi and Aśwaméd ba are completed in two others; and the Puru-shaméd ha, or ceremony performed as the type of the allegorical immolation of Narayana, fills the thirtieth and thirty-sirst chapters. The three next belong to the Sarvaméd ha, or prayers and oblations for universal success. A chapter follows on the Pitrimed ha, or obsequies in commemoration of a deceased ancestor: and the five last chapters contain such passages of this Veda, as are ascribed to Dad Hyach, son or descendant of Atharvan: four of them consist of prayers applicable to various religious rites, as sacraments, suftrations, penance, &c.; and the last is restricted to theology.

Excepting these five chapters, most of the passages contained in the preceding part of this collection of prayers, are attributed to divine perfonages: many are ascribed to the first manifested being, named Praja'-pati, Parame'sht'hi', or Na'ra'yan'a Purusha; some are attributed to Swayambhu' Brahme, or the self existent himself: the reputed authors of the rest are Vrihaspati, Indra, Varun'a and the As'wins: except a sew scattered passages, which are ascribed to Vasisht'ha, Viswa'mitra, Va'made'va, Mad'huch'handas, Me'd'hattit'hi, and other human authors; and some texts, for which no Rishi is specified in the index, and which are therefore assigned either to the sum (Vivaswat or Aditya), as the deity supposed to have revealed this Veda; or to Ya'jnyawalcya, as the person who received the revelation: in the same manner, as the unappropriated passages of the Reguéda are assigned to Praja'pati or Brahma'.

SEVERAL prayers and hymns of the Yajur-Véda have been already translated in former essays ; and may serve as a sufficient example of the style of its composition. I shall here insert only two remarkable passages. The first is the beginning of the prayers of the Sarvaméd'ba. It constitutes the thirty second lecture, comprising two chapters (anuvaca) and sixteen verses.

*FIRE is THAT [original cause]; the sun is that; so is air; so is the moon: such too is that pure Brahme, and those waters, and that lord of creatures. Moments [and other measures of time] proceeded from the estulgent person, whom none can apprehend [as an object of perception], above, around, or in the midst. Of him, whose glory is so great, there is no image: he it is, who is celebrated in various holy strains †. Even he is the god, who pervades all regions: he is the first born: it is he, who is in the womb; he, who is born; and he, who will be produced: he severally, and universally, remains with [all] persons.

⁴ HE, prior to whom, nothing was born; and who became all beings; himself the lord of creatures, with a [body composed of] fixteen members, being delighted by creation, produced the three luminaries [the sun, the moon, and fire].

To what God should we offer oblations, but to him, who made the fluid sky and solid earth, who fixed the solar orb (swar), and celestial abode (náca), and who framed drops [of rain] in the atmosphere? To what god should we offer oblations, but to him, whom heaven and earth mentally contemplate, while they are strengthened and embellished by offerings, and illuminated by the sun risen above them.

[·] Afiatick Refearches, Vol. V, and VII.

^{*} The text refers to particular paffages.

- The wife man views that mysterious [being]; in whom the universe perpetually exists, resting on that sole support. In him, this [world] is absorbed; from him, it issues: in creatures, he is twined and wove, with various forms of existence. Let the wise man, who is conversant with the import of revelation*, promptly celebrate that immortal being, the mysteriously existing and various abode: he, who knows its three states [its creation, continuance and destruction], which are involved in mystery, is sather of the father. That [Brabme], in whom the gods attain immortativy, while they abide in the third [or celestial] region, is our venerable parent, and the providence which governs all worlds.
- *Knowing the elements, discovering the worlds, and recognising all regions and quarters [to be him], and worshipping [speech or revelation, who is] the first-born, the votary pervades the animating spirit of solemn facrifice by means of [his own] soul. Recognizing heaven, earth, and sky [to be him], knowing the worlds, discovering space and (fwar) the solar orb [to be the same], he views that being: he becomes that being; and is identified with him, on completing the broad web of the solemn facrifice.
- 'FOR opulence and wisdom, I solicit this wonderful lord of the altar, the friend of INDRA, most desirable [fire]: may this oblation be effectual. Fire! make me, this day, wise by means of that wisdom, which the gods and the fathers worship: be this oblation efficacious. May VARU'NA grant me wisdom; may fire and PRAJA'PATI confer on me sapience; may INDRA and air vouchsafe me knowledge; may providence give me understanding: be this oblation happily offered! May the priest and the soldier

^{*} For the word Gand' barba is here interpreted, as intending one, who investigates holy writ. In another place (Affatick Researches, vol. VII, p. 297), the same term signified the sun; and should have been so translated, instead of "heavenly quirister, or celestial chorister;" which is not the meaning in that place, though it be the most common acceptation of the word.

both share my prosperity; may the gods grant me supreme happines: to thee, who art that [felicity], be this oblation effectually presented.'

THE next passage, which I shall cite, is a prayer to fire *.

"Thou art (famvatfara) the [first] year [of the cycle]; thou art (pariwatfara) the [second] year; thou art (idavatfara) the [shird] year; thou
art (idvat-watfara) the [sourth] year; thou art (vatfara) the [sisth] year;
may mornings appertain to thee; may days and nights, and fortnights,
and months, and seasons, belong to thee; may (samvatfara) the year be a
portion of thee: to go, or to come, contracting or expanding [thyself],
thou art winged thought. Together with that deity, remain thou firm like
Angiras."

I HAVE quoted this almost unmeaning passage, because it notices the divisions of time, which belong to the calendar of the Védas; and which are explained in treatises on that subject annexed to the sacred volume, under the title of Jyótish. To this I shall again advert, in a subsequent part of this essay. I shall here only observe, with the view of accounting for the seeming absurdity of the text now cited, that fire, as in another place +, sacrifice, is identified with the year and with the cycle, by reason of the near connexion between consecrated fire, and the regulation of time relative to religious rites; at which one is used, and which the other governs.

THE fortieth and last chapter of this Véda is an Upanishad, as before

^{*} Ch. 27, 6 45th, and laft.

⁺ In the S'atapat'ha Brahman'a, b. 11. ch. 1. The reason, here assigned, is expressly stated by the commentator.

intimated: which is usually called I'sá-vásyam, from the two initial words; and sometimes Isá 'dhyáya, from the first word; but the proper title is "Upanishad of the Vájasanéya sanbitá.' The author, as before mentioned, is Dad'hvach, son or descendant of At'harvan*. A translation of it has been published in the posthumous works of Sir William Jones.

The second part of this Vėda, appertaining to the Mád'hyandina Sác'bá, is entitled the S'atapat'ha Bráhmaha; and is much more copious than the collection of prayers. It consists of sourteen books (cáhda) unequally distributed in two parts (bhága): the first of which contains ten books; and the second, only sour. The number of lectures (ad'hyáya), contained in each book, varies; and so does that of the Bráhmahas or separate precepts, in each lecture. Another mode of division, by chapters (Prapátaca), also prevails throughout the volume: and the distinction of Bráhmahas, which are again subdivided into short sections (candicá), is subordinate to both modes of division.

THE fourteen books, which constitute this part of the Vida, comprise z and tundred lectures corresponding to fixty-eight chapters. The whole number of distinct articles entitled Brahmana is four hundred and forty: the sections (candica) are also counted, and are stated at 7624 +.

^{*} Befides Mahi'd'hara's gloss on this chapter, in his Véda-dipa, I have the separate commentary of S'ANCARA, and one by Ba'lacrishn' 'a' NANDA, which contains a clear and copious exposition of this Upanishad. He prosesses to expound it, as it is received by both the Cán wa and Mád'hyandina schools. Sir William Jones, in his version of it, used S'ANCARA's gloss; as appears from a copy of that gloss, which he had carefully studied, and in which his hand-writing appears in more than one place.

[†] My copies of the text and of the commentary are both imperfect: but the deficiencies of one occur is places, where the other is complete; and I have been thus enabled to infpect curforily the whole of this portion of the Véda.

Among fragments of this Brahman'a, comprising entire books, I have one which agrees, in the substance and purport, with the second book of the Mad'hyandina Statepar'da, though differing much in the readings of almost every passage. It probably belongs to a different S'ac'ha.

THE same order is observed in this collection of precepts concerning religious rites, which had been followed in the arrangement of the prayers belonging to them. The first and second books treat of ceremonies on the full and change of the moon; the consecration of the sacrificial fire &c. The third and fourth relate to the mode of preparing the juice of the acid Asclepias, and other ceremonies connected with it, as the fyótishlóma &c. The fifth is confined to the Vájapéya and Rájasúya. The four next teach the consecration of facrificial fire: and the tenth, entitled Agni rabasya, shows the benefits of these ceremonies. The three first books of the second part are stated by the commentator , as relating to the Sautrámania and Aśwaméd ba; and the fourth, which is the last, belongs to theology. In the original, the thirteenth book is, specially, denominated Aśwaméd bya; and the fourteenth is entitled Vribad árahyaca.

THE Aśwaméd ba and Purushaméd ba, celebrated in the manner directed by this Véda, are not really sacrifices of horses and men. In the first mentioned ceremony, six hundred and nine animals of various prescribed kinds, domestick and wild, including birds, sish, and reptiles, are made fast; the tame ones, to twenty-one posts; and the wild, in the intervals between the pillars: and, after certain prayers have been recited, the victims are let loose without injury. In the other, a hundred and eighty-five men of various specified tribes, characters, and professions, are bound to eleven posts: and, after the hymn, concerning the allegorical immolation of NARAYANA +, has been recited, these human victims are liberated unburt: and oblations of butter are made on the sacrificial fire. This mode of per-

^{*} At the beginning of his gloss on the eleventh book.

⁺ Afatick Researches, Vol. VII, p. 251. The version of the hymn, as there given, should be amended by substituting, at the 15th verse, 'binding' for 'immolating.' A similarity of terms led to that error, which the context did not correct; for the 9th verse is rightly translated. However, to follow the commentaries strictly, even the term, which there occurs, and which properly signifies 'immolated,' may be translated, 'eonsecrated,'

forming the Aśwaméd ba and Purushaméd ba, as emblematick ceremonies, not as real facrifices, is taught in this Véda: and the interpretation is fully confirmed by the rituals , and by commentators on the Sanbitá and Brábmaña; one of whom assigns as the reason, because the slesh of victims, which have been actually sacrificed at a Yajnya, must be eaten by the persons, who offer the sacrifice: but a man cannot be allowed, much less required, to eat human sless the hence inferred, or conjectured at least, that human sacrifices were not authorized by the Véda itself: but were either then abrogated, and an emblematical ceremony substituted in their place; or they must have been introduced in later times, on the authority of certain Puránas or Tantras sabricated by persons, who, in this as in other matters, established many unjustifiable practices on the foundation of emblems and allegories, which they misunderstood.

The horse, which is the subject of the religious ceremony called Aswaméd'ba, is also, avowedly, an emblem of Viráj or the primeval and universal manisested being. In the last section of the Taittiriya Yajurvéda, the various parts of the horse's body are described, as divisions of time, and portions of the universe: 'morning is his head; the sun, his eye; air, his breath; the moon, his ear; &c.' A similar passage in the 14th book of the S'atapat'ha bráhmaña describes the same allegorical horse for the meditation of such, as cannot perform an Aśwaméd'ha; and the assemblage of living animals, constituting an imaginary victim, at a real Aśwaméd'ba, equally represent the universal being according to the doctrines of the Indian scripture. It is not, however, certain, whether this ceremony did not also give occasion to the institution of another, apparently not authorized by the Védas, in which a horse was actually sacrificed.

[.] I particularly advert to a separate ritual of the Purushamedha by Ya'ınyade'va.

⁺ Cired from memory: I read the passage several years ago; but I cannot now recover it.

THE Vr bad áranyaca, which constitutes the fourteenth book of the S'atapat' ba brábmaña, is the conclusion of the Vájasanéyi or white Yajush. It consists of seven chapters or eight lectures: and the five last lectures, in one arrangement, corresponding with the six last lectures, in the other, form a theological treatise entitled the Vribad Upamishad, or Vájasanéyi brábmaña upanishad, but more commonly cited as the Vribad áranyaca*. The greatest part of it is in dialogue; and Yajnyawaecya is the principal speaker. As an Upanishad, it properly belongs to the Cánwa Sác'há: at least, it is so cited by VIDYÁRAN'YA in his paraphrase of Upanishads beforementioned. There does not, however, appear to be any material variation in it, as received by the Mád' byandina school: unless in the divisions of chapters and sections; and in the lists of successive teachers, by whom it was handed down.

To convey some notion of the scope and style of this Upanishad, I shall, here, briefly indicate some of the most remarkable passages; and chiefly those, which have been paraphrased by VIDYARANYA. A sew others have been already cited; and the following appears likewise to deserve notice.

Towards the beginning of the Vribad aranyaca, a passage, concerning the origin of fire hallowed for an Aswamed ba, opens thus: 'Nothing existed in this world, before [the production of mind]: this universe was encircled by death eager to devour; for death is the devourer. He framed mind, being desirous of himself becoming endued with a soul.'

^{*} Besides three copies of the text, and two transcripts of S'ANCARA's commentary, I have, also in duplicate, another very excellent commentary by NITYA'NAND' A'SRAMA, which is entitled Mitácsbará; and a metrical paraphrase of S'ANCARA's gloss by SURR'S WAR'A'CHA'RYA, as well as annotations in prose by ANANDA GIRI.

⁺ This is the Upanifbad, to which Sir Williams Jowes refers, in his preface to the translation of the Infitutes of Menu: p. viii.

HERE, the commentators explain death to be the intellectual being, who sprung from the golden mundane egg: and the passage, before cited from the Rigvéda*, where the primeval existence of death is denied, may be easily reconciled with this, upon the Indian ideas of the periodical destruction and renovation of the world, and finally of all beings but the supreme one.

THE first selection by VIDYA'RAN'YA, from this Upanishad, is the fourth article (brahmana) of the third lecture of the Vribad aranyaea. It is descriptive of VIRA'I, and begins thus:

'This [variety of forms] was, before [the production of body], foul, bearing a human shape. Next, looking around, that [primeval being] faw nothing but himself; and he, first, said "I am I." Therefore, his name was "I:" and, thence, even now, when called, [a man] first answers "it is I," and then declares any other name, which appertains to him.

* SINCE he, being anterior to all this [which feeks supremacy], did consume by fire all sinful [obstacles to his own supremacy], therefore does the man, who knows this [truth], overcome him, who seeks to be before him.

HE felt dread; and, therefore, man fears, when alone. But he reflected, "Since nothing exists besides myself, why should I fear?" Thus his terror departed from him; for what should he dread, since fear must be of another? He felt not delight; and, therefore, man delights not, when alone. He wished [the existence of] another; and instantly he became such, as is man and woman in mutual embrace. He caused this, his own self, to fall in twain; and thus became a husband and a wife. Therefore, was this [body, so separated,] as it were an impersect moiety of himself: for so YAJNYAWALCYA has pronounced it. This blank, therefore, is completed by woman. He approached her; and, thence, were human beings produced.

'SHE reflected, doubtingly; "how can he, having produced me from himself, [incestuously] approach me? I will now assume a disguise." She became a cow; and the other became a bull, and approached her; and the issue were kine. She was changed into a mare, and he into a stallion; one was turned into a semale ass, the other into a male one; thus did he again approach her; and the one-hoosed kind was the offspring. She became a semale goat, and he a male one; she was an ewe, and he a ram; thus he approached her; and goats and sheep were the progeny. In this manner, did he create every existing pair whatsoever, even to the ants [and minutest insect]."

The fequel of this passage is also curious; but is too long to be here inserted. The notion of Vira's dividing his own substance into male and semale, occurs in more than one Puraña. So does that of an incestuous marriage and intercourse of the first Menu with his daughter S'ATARU-PA': and the commentators on the Upanishad understand that legend to be alluded to in this place. But the institutes, ascribed to Menu, make Vira's to be the issue of such a separation of persons, and Menu himself to be his offspring *. There is, indeed, as the reader may observe from

^{*} See Sir W. Jones's translation of Menu, Ch. 1, v. 32 and 33.

the passages cited in the present essay, much disagreement and consequent consustion, in the gradation of persons interposed by Hindu theology between the supreme being and the created world.

THE author of the paraphrase before mentioned has next selected three dialogues from the fourth lecture or chapter of the Vribadaranyaca. In the first, which begins the chapter and occupies three articles (Brabmahas), a conceited and loquacious priest, named Ba'La'cı (from his mother BALACA'), and GA'RGYA (from his ancestor GARGA), visits AJA'TAS'ATR'U king of Casi, and offers to communicate to him the knowledge of Gon. The king bestows on him a liberal recompense for the offer; and the priest unfolds his doctrine, faying he worships, or recognizes, as Gon, the being who is manifest in the fun; him, who is apparent in lightning, in the etherial elements, in air, in fire, in water, in a mirror, in the regions of space, in shade, and in the soul itself. The king who was, as it appears, a well instructed theologian, refutes these several notions, successively; and, finding the priest remain filent, asks " is that all you have to fay?" GA'RGYA replies, "that is all." Then, fays the king, "that is not fufficient for the knowledge of God." Hearing this, GARGYA proposes to become his pupil. The king replies, "It would reverse established order, were a priest to attend a soldier in expectation of religious instruction: but I will fuggest the knowledge to you." He takes him by the hand; and, rising, conducts him to a place, where a man was fleeping. He calls the fleeper by various appellations suitable to the priess's doctrine; but without succeeding in awakening him: he then roules the fleeper by flirring him; and, afterwards, addressing the priest, asks, "While that man was thus asleep, where was his foul, which confills in intellect? and whence came that foul when he was awakened?" GA'RGYA could not folve the question: and

the king then proceeds to explain the nature of foul and mind, according to the received notions of the Védánta. As it is not the purpose of this essay to consider those doctrines, I shall not here insert the remainder of the dialogue.

THE next, occupying a fingle article, is a conversation between YA'I-NYAWALCYA and his wife MAITREYI'. He announces to her his intention of retiring from the civil world; requests her confent, and propoles to divide his effects between her, and his fecond wife CA'TYAYANI'. She asks, " Should I become immortal, if this whole earth, full of riches, were mine?" " No," replies YA'JNYAWALCYA, " riches ferve for the means of living; but immortality is not attained through wealth." MAITREYI' declares the has no use, then, for that, by which the may not become immortal; and folicits from her busband the communication of the knowledge, which he possesses, on the means, by which beatitude may be attained. Ya'JNYAWALCYA answers, " Dear wert thou to me; and a pleafing [fentiment] dost thou make known : come, fit down : I will expound [that doctrine]; do thou endeavour to comprehend it." A difcourse follows, in which Ya'JNYAWALCYA elucidates the notion, that abstraction procures immortality; because affections are relative to the foul, which should therefore be contemplated and considered in all objects, fince every thing is foul; for all general and particular notions are ultimately refolvable into one, whence all proceed, and in which all merge; and that is identified with the supreme foul, through the knowledge of which beatitude may be attained. Samuel Continue Market and

I SHALL select, as a specimen of the reasoning in this dialogue, a passage, which is material on a different account; as it contains an enumeration of the Védas, and of the various sorts of passages, which they

comprise; and tends to confirm some observations hazarded at the beginning of this essay.

As smoke, and various substances, separately issue from fire lighted with moist wood; so, from this great being, were respired the Rigveda, the Yajurveda, the Samaveda, and the At'barvan and Angiras; the Itihasa and Purana; the sciences and Upanishads; the verses and aphorisms; the expositions and illustrations: all these were breathed forth by him.

THE commentators remark, that four forts of prayers (Mantra), and eight kinds of precepts (Brábmana) are here stated. The fourth description of prayers comprehends such, as were revealed to, or discovered by, Atharvan and Angiras: meaning the Atharvana véda. The Itibasa designates such passages in the second part of the Védas entitled Brábmaña, as narrate a story: for instance, that of the nymph Urvas's and the king Pururavas. The Puraña intends those, which relate to the creation and similar topicks. "Sciences" are meant of religious worship. "Verses" are memorial lines. "Aphorisms" are short sentence in a concise style, "Expositions" interpret such sentences; and illustrations" elucidate the meaning of the prayers.

It may not be superfluous to observe in this place, that the Itihasa and Puranas, here meant, are not the mythological poems bearing the same title; but certain passages of the Indian scriptures, which are interspersed among others, throughout that part of the Védas, called Brabmana, and instances of which occur in more than one quotation in the present essay.

THE dialogue between YA'JNYAWALCYA and MAITREYI', above-

mentioned, is repeated towards the close of the fixth lecture, with a short and immaterial addition to its introduction. In this place, it is succeeded by a discourse on the unity of the soul: said, towards the conclusion, to have been addressed, to the two Asseins, by Dap'HYACH, a descendant of AT'HARVAN.

THE fourth lecture ends with a list of the teachers, by whom that and the three preceding lectures, were handed down, in succession, to PAUTIMA'SHYA. It begins with him, and ascends, through forty steps, to AYA'SYA; or, with two more intervening persons, to the Aswins; and from them, to DAD'HYACH, AT'HARVAN, and MRITYU or death; and, through other gradations of spirits, to VIRA'J; and finally to BRAHME. The same list occurs again at the end of the fixth lecture: and similar lists are found in the corresponding places of this Upanishad, as arranged for the Mad'byandina Sac'ha. The succession is there traced upwards, from the reciter of it, who speaks of himself in the first perfon, and from his immediate teacher Sauryana'yya, to the same original revelation, through nearly the same number of gradations. The difference is almost entirely confined to the first ten or twelve names.*

THE fifth and fixth lectures of this Upanishad have been paraphrased, like the sourth, by the author beforementioned. They consist of dialogues, in which YAJNYAWALCYA is the chief discourser.

I do not find Vx a's a mentioned in either list: nor can the furname Páráfarya, which occurs more than once, be applied to him; for it is not his parronymick, but a name deduced from the feminine patronymick Páráfarí. It feems therefore questionable, whether any inference, respecting the age of the Védas, can be drawn from these lists, in the manner proposed by the late Sir W. Jones, in his presace to the translation of Menu (p. viii.). The anachronisms, which I observe in them, deter me from a similar attempt to deduce the age of this Véda from these and other lists, which will be noticed further on.

JANACA, a king paramount, or emperor, of the race of Vidébas, was celebrating at great expense, a solemn sacrifice, at which the Brábmanas of Curu and Panchála were affembled; and the king, being desirous of ascertaining which of those priests was the most learned and eloquent theologian, ordered a thousand cows to be made fast in his stables, and their horns to be gilt with a prescribed quantity of gold. He then addressed the priests, "whoever, among you, O venerable Brábmanas, is most skilled in theology, may take the cows." The rest presumed not to touch the cattle; but Ya'Jnyawalcya bade his pupil Samas Ravas drive them to his home. He did so; and the priests were indignant, that he should thus arrogate to himself superiority. As'wala, who was the king's officiating priest, asked him, "art thou, O Ya'Jnyawalcya! more skilled in theology than we are?" He replied, "I bow to the most learned; but I was desirous of possessing the cattle."

THIS introduction is followed by a long dialogue, or rather by a fuecession of dialogues, in which six other rival priests (besides a learned semale, named Ga'rgi, the daughter of Vachacru;) take part as antagenists of Ya'jnyawalcya; proposing questions to him, which he answers; and, by resuting their objections, silences them successively. Each
dialogue fills a single article (Brábmana); but the controversy is maintained by Ga'rgi in two separate discussions; and the contest between
Ya'jnawalcya and Vidagd'ha surnamed Sa'calya, in the ninth or
last article of the sisth lecture, concludes in a singular manner.

YA'INYAWALCYA proposes to his adversary an abstruse question, and declares " if thou dost not explain this unto me, thy head shall drop off." SA'CALYA (proceeds the text) could not explain it; and his head did sall off; and robbers stole his bones, mistaking them for some other thing.'

YA'JNYAWALCYA then asks the rest of his antagonists, whether they have any question to propose, or are desirous, that he should propose any. They remain silent, and he addresses them as follows:

MAN is indeed like to a lofty tree: his hairs are the leaves; and his skin, the cuticle. From his skin flows blood, like juice from bark; it issues from his wounded person, as juice from a stricken tree. His slesh is the inner bark; and she membrane, near the bones, is the white substance of the wood. The bones within are the wood itself: and marrow and pith are alike. If then a selled tree spring anew from the root; from what root does mortal man grow again, when hewn down by death? Do not say, from prolifick seed; for that is produced from the living person. Thus, a tree, indeed, also springs from seed; and likewise sprouts afresh [from the root] after [seemingly] dying: but, if the tree be torn up by the root, it doth not grow again. From what root, then, does mortal man rise afresh, when hewn down by death? [Do you answer] He was born [once for all]? No; he is born [again]: and [I ask you] what is it, that produces him anew?"

The priests, thus interrogated, observes the commentator, and being unacquainted with the first cause, yielded the victory to YAJNYAWALCYA. Accordingly, the text adds a brief indication of the first cause as intended by that question. BRAHME, who is intellect with [the unvaried perception of] selicity, is the best path [to happiness] for the generous votary, who knows him, and remains fixed [in attention].

THE fixth lecture comprises two dialogues between YAJNYAWALCYA,

Sudva and Cinal a answering to the Periofteum and Alburnum.

and the king Janaca; in which the faint communicates religious instruction to the monarch, after inquiring from him the doctrines which had been previously taught to the king by divers priests.

THESE are followed by a repetition of the dialogue between YAJNYA-WALCYA and his wife MAITRE'Y'I; with scarcely a variation of a single word, except the introduction as above mentioned. The fixth lecture concludes with repeating the list of teachers, by whom, successively, this part of the Vėda was taught.

CONCERNING the remainder of the Vribad áranyaca, I shall only observe, that it is terminated by a list of teachers, in which the tradition of it is traced back from the son of PAUTIMA'SHI, through forty steps, to YA'JNYAWAL-CYA; and, from him, through twelve more, to the sun. In copies belonging to the Mād'hyandina Sác'há, the list is varied, interposing more gradations, with considerable difference in the names, from the reciter who speaks in the first person, and his teacher the son of BHARADWA'JI, up to YA'JNYA-WALCYA; beyond whom, both lists agree.

THE copy, belonging to the Cánwa Sác'há, subjoins a further list stated by the commentators to be common to all the Sác'hás of the Vájin or Vájafanéyi Yajurvéda, and to be intended for the tracing of that Véda up to its original revelation. It begins from the son of Sa'nji'vi', who was sifth, descending from Yajnyawalcya, in the lists abovementioned; and it ascends by ten steps, without any mention of that saint, to Tura surnamed Ca'vashe'ya, who had the revelation from Praja'pati; and he, from Brahme.

BEFORE I proceed to the other Tajurvéda, I think it necessary to re-

mark, that the Indian saint last mentioned (Tura son of Cavasha) has been named in a former quotation from the Aitareya, as the priest who conscrated Janame Java son of Paricehit. It might, at the first glance, be hence concluded that he was contemporary with the celebrated king, who is stated in Hindu history to have reigned at the beginning of the Cali age. But, besides the constant uncertainty respecting Indian saints, who appear and reappear in heroick history at periods most remote, there is in this, as in many other instances of the names of princes, a source of consustion and possible error, from the recurrence of the same name, with the addition even of the same patronymick, for princes remote from each other. Thus, according to Puránas, Paricehit, third son of Curu, had a son named Janame Jaya; and he may be the person here meant, sather than one of the same name, who was the great grandson of Arjuna.

ON THE BLACK YAJURVE'DA.

THE Taittiriya, or black Yajush, is more copious (I mean, in regard to mantras,) than the white Yajush, but less so than the Rigvéda. Its Sanhitá, or collection of prayers, is arranged in seven books (ashtaca or cánda), containing from five to eight lectures or chapters (ad'byáya, praśna, or prapátaca). Each chapter, or lecture, is subdivided into sections (anuváca), which are equally distributed in the third and fixth books; but unequally in the rest. The whole number exceeds six hundred and sisty.

ANOTHER mode of division, by cándas, is stated in the index. In this arrangement, each book (cánda) relates to a separate subject; and the

chapters (prasna), comprehended in it, are enumerated and described.

Besides this, in the Sanbitá itself, the texts contained in every section are numbered; and so are the syllables in each text.

THE first section (anuvaca), in this collection of prayers, corresponds with the first section (cardica) in the white Yajush*: but all the rest differ; and so does the arrangement of the subjects. Many of the topicks are indeed alike in both Védas; but differently placed, and differently treated... Thus the ceremony called Rajasuya occupies one canda, corresponding with the eighth praina of the first book (Ashtaca); and is preceded by two candas, relative to the Vajapeya and to the mode of its celebration, which occupy fourteen fections in the preceding prasna. Confecrated fire is the subject of four candas, which fill the fourth and fifth books. Sacrifice (ad'hwara) is noticed in the fecond and third lectures of the first book, and in feveral lectures of the fixth. The subject is continued in the seventh and last book; which treats largely on the Tyótishtóma, including the forms of preparing and drinking the juice of acid Asclepias. The Aśwamed'ha, Nr med'ha, and Pitrimed'ha, are severally treated of in their places; that is, in the collection of prayers + and in the fecond part of this Veda. Other topicks, introduced in different places, are numerous; but it would be tedious to specify them at large.

Among the Rifbis of the texts, I observe no human authors : nine entire

Translated in a former effay, with the first verse in each of the three other Védas. Afatick Researches, Vol. V, p. 364.

⁺ The prayers of the Aswamed'ha occur in the concluding fections, between the 12th fection of the 4th chapter and the end of the fifth chapter of the 7th and last book.

cándas, according to the second arrangement indicated by the index, appear to be ascribed to Prajapati or the lord of creatures; as many to Soma or the moon; seven to Agni or fire; and sixteen to all the gods. Possibly, some passages may be allotted by the commentators to their real authors, though not pointed out by the index for the Atréyi Sác'há.

Several prayers from this Véda have been translated in former essays *:

Other very remarkable passages have occurred on examining this collection of Mantras +. The following, from the seventh and last book ‡, is chosen as a specimen of the Taittiriya Tajurvéda. Like several beforecited, it alludes to the Indian notions of the creation; and, at the risk of sameness, I select passages relative to that topick, on account of its importance in explaining the creed of the ancient Hindu religion. The present extract was recommended for selection by its allusion to a mythological notion, which apparently gave origin to the story of the Varába-avatára; and from which an astronomical period, entitled Calpa, has perhaps been taken §.

- 'WATERS [alone] there were; this world originally was water. In it, the lord of creation moved, having become air: he faw this [earth]; and upheld it, affuming the form of a boar (varaba); and then moulded that [earth], becoming Vis'wacarman, the artificer of the universe. It appeared (aprai bata), and was manifest (prii bivi); and therefore is that name (Prii bivi) assigned to the earth.
 - . The lord of creation meditated profoundly on the earth; and created

^{*} Affatick Refearches, Vol. V, and VII.

⁺ I have feveral complete copies of the text: but only a part of the commentary by SAYANA.

¹ Book VII, Chapter 1, Section 5.

⁶ One of the Calpar, or renovations of the universe, is denominated Várába.

the gods, the Vasus, Rudras, and Adilyas. Those gods addressed the lord of creation, saying: "How can we form creatures?" He replied, "As I created you by profound contemplation (tapas); so do you seek in devoction (tapas), the means of multiplying creatures." He gave them consecrated fire, saying, "With this sacrificial fire, perform devotions." With it, they did perform austerities: and, in one year, framed a single cow. He gave her to the Vasus, to the Rudras, and to the Adityas, [successive-ly]: bidding them 'guard her.' The Vasus, the Rudras and the Adityas [severally] guarded her: and she calved for the Vasus, three hundred and thirty-three [calves]; and [as many], for the Rudras; and [the same number], for the Adityas: thus was she the thousandth.

'They addressed the lord of creation, requesting him to direct them in performing a solemn act of religion with a thousand [kine for a gratuity.] He caused the Vasus to sacrifice with the Agnishtoma; and they conquered this world, and gave it [to the priests]: he caused the Rudras to sacrifice with the Uct'hya; and they obtained the middle region, and gave it away [for a sacrificial see]: he caused the Adityas to sacrifice with the Atiratra; and they acquired that [other] world, and gave it [to the priests for a gratuity].'

THIS extract may suffice: Its close, and the remainder of the section, bear allusion to certain religious ceremonies, at which a thousand cows must be given to the officiating priests.

To the second part of this Veda * belongs an Arahya, divided like the

The Taittirlya, like other Védas, has its Brábinas a: and frequent questations from it occur in the commentary on the prayers, and in other places. But I have not yet seen a complete copy of this portion of the Indian sacred books.

Sanbitá into lectures (praśna), and again subdivided into chapters (anuválca), containing texts, or sections, which are numbered, and in which the syllables have been counted. Here also a division by cándas, according to the different subjects, prevails. The six sirst lectures, and their corresponding cándas, relate to religious observances. The two next constitute three Upanishads; or, as they are usually cited, two: one of which is commonly entitled the Taittiríyaca Upanishad; the other is called the Náráyana, or, to distinguish it from another belonging exclusively to the At'harvavéda, the great (Mahá, or Vříban,) náráyana. They are all admitted in collections of theological treatises appendant on the At'harvana; but the last-mentioned is there subdivided into two Upanishads.

For a further specimen of this Yajurvéda, I shall only quote the opening of the third and last chapter of the Váruhi or second Taittirsyaca Upanishad, with the introductory chapter of the first *.

- *BHRIGU, the offspring of VARUNA, approached his father, faying "Venerable [father]! make known to me Brahme." VARUNA propounded these; namely food [or body], truth [or life], sight, hearing, mind [or thought], and speech: and thus proceeded; "That, whence all beings are produced; that, by which they live when born; that, towards which they tend; and that, into which they pass; do thou seek, [for] that is Brahme."
- HE meditated [in] devout contemplation; and, having thought profoundly, he recognised food [or body] to be Brabme: for all beings are

^{*} I use several copies of the entire A'ran'ya, with Sancara's commentary on the Taitiriya Upanishade and annotations on his gloss by Anandaynya'na: besides separate copies of that, and of the Mabanarayana; and a commentary on the Varun's Upanishad entitled Lagbu dipicae.

indeed produced from food; when born, they live by food; towards food they tend; they pass into food. This he comprehended; [but, yet unfatisfied,] he again approached his father VARUNA, faying "Venerable [father]! make known to me Brahme." VARUNA replied, "Seek the knowledge of Brahme by devout meditation: Brahme is presound contemplation."

- "HAVING deeply meditated, he discovered breath [or life] to be Brahme: for all these beings are indeed produced from breath; when born, they live by breath; towards breath they tend; they pass into breath. This he understood: [Dut] again he approached his father VARUN'A, faying "Venerable [father]! make known to me BRAHME." VARUN'A replied "Seek him by prosound meditation: Brahme is that."
- HE meditated in deep contemplation; and discovered intellect to be Brabme: for all these beings are indeed produced from intellect; when born, they live by intellect; towards intellect they tend; and they pass into intellect. This he understood: [but] again he came to his father VARUN'A, saying, "Venerable [father]! make known to me Brabme." VARUN'A replied, "Inquire by devout contemplation: prosound meditation is Brabme."
- "He thought deeply; and, having thus meditated [with] devout contemplation, he knew Ananda [or felicity] to be Brabme: for all these beings are indeed produced from pleasure; when born, they live by joy; they tend towards happiness; they pass into felicity.
- * Such is the science, which was attained by BHRIGU, taught by VA-RUN'A, and sounded on the supreme etherial spirit. He, who knows this,

[a blazing fire], which confumes food: great he is by progeny, by cattle, and by holy perfections; and great, by propitious celebrity.'

The above is the beginning of the last chapter of the Varuńi Upanishad. I omit the remainder of it. The first Taittiriyaca Upanishad opens with the following prayer. 'May MITRA [who presides over the day], Varun'a [who governs the night], Aryaman [or the regent of the sun and of sight], Indra [who gives strength], Vrihaspati [who rules the speech and understanding], and Vishn'u, whose step is vast, grant us ease. [I] how to Brabme. Salutation unto thee, O air! Even thou art Brahme, present [to our apprehension]. Thee I will call "present Brahme:" thee I will name "the right one:" thee I will pronounce "the true one." May that [Brahme, the universal being entitled air], preserve me; may that preserve the teacher: propitious be it.

ON OTHER UPANISHADS OF THE YAJURVE'DA.

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Among the Sác'hás of the Yajurvéda, one entitled Maitrayahí, furnishes an Upanishad, which bears the same denomination. An abridged paraphrase of it, in verse +, shows it to be a dialogue in which a sage, named S'A'CA'YANA, communicates to the king VRIHADRAT'HA, theological knowledge derived from another sage called MAITRA.

sected the series at name to

^{*} I have inferted here, as in other places, between crotchets, such illustrations from the commentary, as appear requisite to render the text intelligible.

⁺ By VIDYA'RAN'YA. I have not feen the original.

A DIFFERENT S'ác'bá of this Véda, entitled the Cai'ba or Cát'baca, furnishes an Upanishad bearing that name; and which is one of those most frequently cited by writers on the Védanta. It is an extract from a Brábmana; and also occurs in collections of Upanishads appertaining to the At'barvana.

the appeal forms of the analysis of the article world. The article was a second of the second of the

Swe'TA's WATARA, who has given his name to one more S'ác'há of the Tajurvéda, from which an Upanishad is extracted*, is introduced in it, as teaching theology. This Upanishad, comprised in fix chapters or lectures (ad'byáya), is found in collections of theological tracts appertaining to the At'barvavéda; but, strictly, it appears to belong exclusively to the Tajusk.

ON THE SA'MAVE'DA.

There'll Ser, or lead, definition in the only deposit which plained tout.

A PECULIAR degree of holiness feems to be attached, according to Indian notions, to the Sámavéda; if reliance may be placed on the inference suggested by the etymology of its name, which indicates, according to the derivation + usually assigned to it, the essicacy of this part of the Védas in removing sin. The prayers, belonging to it, are, as before observed, composed in metre, and intended to be chanted; and their supposed efficacy is apparently ascribed to this mode of uttering them.

Nor having yet obtained a complete copy of this Veda, or of any

^{*} In the abridgment of it by Vidyaran'ya, this is the description given of the S'avéthi'wara Upanishad,

⁺ From the root Sb5 convertible into f6 and f6, and fignifying to deflroy.' The derivative is exposureded as denoting fomething which deftroys fin.'

commentary on it, I can only describe it impersedly from such fragments, as I have been able to collect.

A PRINCIPAL, if not the first, part of the Sámavéda is that entifled Archica. It comprises prayers, among which I observe many, that constantly recur in rituals of Sámavédíya or Ch'handóga priests, and some of which have been translated in former essays. They are here arranged, as appears from two copies of the Archica +, in six chapters (prapátaca) subdivided into half chapters, and into sections (dasati); ten in each chapter, and usually containing the exact number of ten verses each. The same collection of prayers, in the same order, but prepared for chanting, is distributed in seventeen chapters, under the title of the Grámagéya gána. That, at least, is its title in the only copy which I have seen. But rituals, directing the same prayers to be chanted, employ the designation of A'rebica gana, among other terms applicable to various modes of rhythmical recitation.

ANOTHER portion of the Sámavéda, arranged for chanting, bears the title of Arahya gaña. Three copies of it ‡, which feem to agree exactly, exhibit the same distribution into three chapters, which are subdivided into half chapters and decades or sections, like the Archica above mentioned. But I have not yet found a plain copy of it, divested of the additions made for guidance in chanting it.

^{*} Afiatick Refearches, Vol. V, and VII.

⁴ One of them dated nearly two centuries ago, in 1672 Samuat. This copy exhibits the further title of Ch'handati Sanbitá.

The most ancient of those in my possession, is dated nearly three centuries ago, in 1587 Samuel.

⁶ This Aranya comprises nearly three hundred verses (Saman), or exactly 290. The Archica contains twice as many, or nearly 600.

The additions here alluded to, confift in prolonging the founds of vowels, and resolving diphthongs into two or more syllables, inserting likewise, in many places, other additional syllables, besides placing numerical marks for the management of the voice. Some of the prayers, being subject to variation in the mode of chanting them, are repeated, once or oftener, for the purpose of showing these differences; and, to most, are prefixed the appropriate names of the several passages.

Under the title of A'rshaya Bráhmuha, I have found what seems to be an index of these two portions of the Sámavéda. For the names of the passages, or sometimes the initial words, are there enumerated in the same order, in which they occur in the Gráma géya, or A'rchica, followed by the A'ranya gána. This index does not, like the explanatory tables of the other Védas, specify the metre of each prayer, the deity addressed in it, and the occasion on which it should be used; but only the Rishi or author: and, from the variety of names stated in some instances, a conclusion may be drawn, that the same texts are ascribable to more than one author.

It has been already hinted, that the modes of chanting the same prayers are various, and bear different appellations. Thus, the rituals frequently direct certain texts of this Véda to be first recited simply, in a low voice, according to the usual mode of inaudible utterance of the Védas; and then to be similarly chanted, in a particular manner, under the designation of A'rebica gána; showing, however, divers variations and exceptions from that mode, under the distinct appellation of Aniructa gána.*

So, likewise, the same, or nearly the same passages, which are contained

^{*} The ritual, which is the chief authority for this remark, is one by Sa'ran' A'char'ra, entitled. Yajnyatantra Sud'hánid'bi.

in the A'rebica and Grámagéya, are arranged in a different order, with further variations as to the mode of chanting them, in another collection named the Uba gána.

FROM the comparison and examination of these parts of the Samavelda, in which, so far as the collation of them has been carried, the texts appear to be the same, only arranged in a different order, and marked for a different mode of recitation, I am led to think, that other collections, under similar names, may not differ more widely from the Archica and Aranya above mentioned: and that these may possibly constitute the whole of that part of the Samaveda, which corresponds to the Sanbitar of other Védas.

Under the denomination of Brábmaña, which is appropriated to the fecond part or supplement of the Véda, various works have been received by different schools of the Sámavéda. Four appear to be extant; three of which have been seen by me, either complete or in part. One is denominated Shadvinśa; probably from its containing twenty-six chapters. Another is called Adbbúta, or, at greater length, Adbbúta Bráhmaña. The only portion, which I have yet seen, of either, has the appearance of a fragment, and breaks off at the close of the fifth chapter: both names are there introduced, owing, as it should seem, to some error; and I shall not attempt to determine which of them it really belongs to. A third Bráhmaña of this Veda is termed Panchavinśa; so named, probably, from the number of twenty-sive chapters comprised in it: and I

Sir Robert Chambers's copy of the Samaveda comprised four portions entitled Gano, the diffine names of which, according to the list received from him, are Vigana Arno, Vigana, Ugana, and Ubya gana. The first of these, I suspect to be the Aranya, written in that list Arno; the last seems to be the fasse, with that which is in my copy denominated Uba gana.

conjecture this to be the same with one in my possession not designated by any particular title; but containing that precise number of chapters.

some faller Uno allace the fon of Agenta, There

The best known among the Brábmahas of the Sámavéda is that entitled Tándya. It was expounded by Sa'ran'a'cha'ra, but a fragment of the text with his commentary, including the whole of the second book (panjica), from the sixth to the tenth lecture, is all that I have been yet able to procure. This fragment relates to the religious ceremony named Agnishioma. I do not find in it, nor in other portions of the Sámavéda before described, any passage, which can be conveniently translated as a specimen of the style of this Véda.

LEAVING, then, the Mantras and Brábmanas of the Sámavéda, I proceed to notice its principal Upanishad, which is one of the longest and most abstruse compositions bearing that title.

THE Ch'bandogya Upanishad contains eight chapters (propatacas), apparently extracted from some portion of the Brahmana, in which they are numbered from three to ten *. The first and second, not being included in the Upanishad, probably relate to religious ceremonies. The chapters are unequally subdivided into paragraphs or sections; amounting, in all, to more than a hundred and fifty.

A GREAT part of the Ch'handigya + is in a didactick form: including however, like most of the other Upanifeads, several dialogues. The beginning of one, between Sanatcuma Ra and Na REDA, which occupies the

^{*} I have several copies of the text, with the gloss of Stancara, and annotations on it by Anandajara's magnet; besides the notes of Vrasariar's on a commentary by Anandariar's a

⁺ Its author, indicated by Vra'sarr'ar'na, is Haragarva,

whole of the feventh chapter *, has been already quoted. The preceding chapter confifts of two dialogues between Swe'tace'tu, grandson of Arun'a, and his own father Uddalaca the fon of Arun'a. These had been prepared in the fifth chapter, where Prava'hana, son of Jivala, convicts S'we'tace'tu of ignorance in theology: and where that converfation is followed by several other dialogues, intermixed with successive references for instruction. The fourth chapter opens with a story respecting Ja'nas'ruti, grandson of Putra; and, in this and the fifth chapter, dialogues, between human beings, are interspersed with others in which the interlocutors are either divine or imaginary persons. The eighth or last chapter contains a disquisition on the soul, in a conference between Praja-

I SHALL here quote, from this Upanishad, a fingle dialogue belonging to the fifth chapter.

PRACHINAS'A'LA fon of UPAMANYU, SATYAYAJNYA issue of PULUSHA, INDRADYUMNA offspring of BHALLAVI, JANA descendant of S'ARSCARA'CSHYA, and VUDILA sprung from Aswatara's'wa, being all persons deeply conversant with holy writ, and possessed of great dwellings, meeting together, engaged in this disquisition, "What is our foul? and who is Brahme?"

'THESE venerable persons reflected, "UDDALACA, the son of ARUNA, is well acquainted with the universal soul: let us immediately go to him."

They went: but he restected, "these great and very learned persons will

^{*} That is, the seventh of the extract, which constitutes this Upanishad; but the ninth, according to the mode of numbering the chapters, in the book, whence it is taken.

ask me; and I shall not [be able] to communicate the whole [which they inquire]: I will at once indicate to them another [instructor]." He thus addressed them, "As'WAPATI, the son of CECAYA, is well acquainted with the universal soul; let us now go to him."

to be shown to them respectively; and, next morning, civilly dismissed them; [but, observing, that they staid, and did not accept his presents,] he thus spoke: "In my dominions, there is no robber; nor miser; no drunkard; nor any one neglectful of a consecrated hearth; none ignorant; and no adulterer, nor adulterers. Whence [can you have been aggrieved]?" [As they did not state a complaint, he thus proceeded; "I must be asked, O venerable men! [for what you desire]." [Finding, that they made no request, he went on;] "As much as I shall bestow on each officiating priest, so much will I also give to you. Stay then, most reverend men." They answered: "It is indeed requisite to inform a person, of the purpose of a wisit. Thou well knowest the universal soul; communicate that knowledge unto us." He replied; "Tomorrow I will declare it to you." Perceiving his drift, they, next day, attended him bearing [like pupils] logs of sirewood. Without bowing to them, he thus spoke.

WHOM dost thou worship as the soul, O son of UPAMANYU?" "Heaven," answered he, "O wenerable king!" "Splendid is that [portion of the] universal self, which thou dost worship as the soul: therefore, in thy family, is seen [the juice of the acid asclepias] drawn, expressed, and prepared, [for religious rites]; thou dost consume sood [as a blazing sire]; and dost view a [son or other] beloved object. Whoever worships this for the universal soul, similarly enjoys sood, contemplates a beloved object, and sinds religious occupations in his family. But this is [only] the head of the foul. Thy head had been loft," added the king, " hadft thou not come to me."

sidelled imag. If Ashrayry, the for or Carayrood well amining

"Whom dost thou worship as the soul, O descendant of PRACHINAyo'GA?" "The sun," answered he, "O venerable king!" "Varied is that [portion of the] universal self, which thou dost worship as the soul; and, therefore, in thy samily, many various forms are seen: a car yoked with mares, and treasure, together with semale slaves, surround thee; thou dost consume food, and contemplate a pleasing object. Whoever worships this, for the universal soul, has the same enjoyments, and finds religious occupations in his samily. But this is only the eye of soul. Thou hadd been blind," said the king, "hads thou not come to me."

HE next addressed INDRADYUMN a the son of BHALLAVI: "Whom dost thou worship, as the soul, O descendant of Vy A'GHR APAD." "Air," replied he, "O venerable king!" "Distased is that portion of the universal self, which thou dost worship as the soul, numerous offerings reach thee; many tracts of cars sollow thee; thou dost consume food; thou viewest a savourite object. Whoever worships this, for the universal soul, enjoys food and contemplates a beloved object; and has religious occupations in his samily. But this is only the breath of soul. Thy breath had expired," said the king, "hads thou not come to me."

rigard, he wild as an a well-of that he begins in an him of the pin

He then interrogated JANA the fon of SARCARACSHYA: "Whom dost thou worship as the foul, O fon of SARCARACSHYA?" "The etherial element," said he, "O venerable king!" "Abundant is that universal self, whom thou dost worship as the soul; and, therefore, thou like wife dost abound with progeny and wealth. Thou dost consume food;

thou viewest a favourite object. Whoever worships this, for the universal soul, consumes food, and sees a beloved object; and has religious occupations in his family. But this is only the trunk of soul. Thy trunk had corrupted," faid the king, " hadst thou not come to me."

"Whom dost thou worship as the soul, O descendant of Vya'ghrapad?"
"Water," said he, "O venerable king!" "Rich is that universal self, whom thou dost worship as the soul; and therefore, art thou opulent and thriving. Thou dost consume food; thou viewest a favourite object. Whoever worships this, for the universal soul, partakes of similar enjoyments, contemplates as dear an object, and has religious occupations in his samily. But this is only the abdomen of the soul. Thy bladder had burst," said the king, "hadst thou not come to me."

LASTLY he interrogated UDDA'LACA the fon of ARUN'A. "Whom dost thou worship as the soul, O descendant of Go'TAMA?" "The earth," said he, "O venerable king!" "Constant is that universal self, whom thou dost worship as the soul: and, therefore, thou remainest steady, with offspring and with cattle. Thou dost consume food; thou viewest a favous rite object. Whoever worships this, for the universal soul, shares like enjoyments, and views as beloved an object, and has religious occupations in his samily. But this forms only the seet of the soul. Thy seet had been lame," said the king, "hadst thou not come to me."

'He thus addressed them [collectively]: "You consider this univerfal foul, as it were an individual being; and you partake of distinct enjoyment. But he, who worships, as the universal foul, that which is known by its [manifested] portions, and is inserred [from consciousness], enjoys nourishment in all worlds, in all beings, in all souls: his head is splendid, like that of this universal soul; his eye is similarly varied; his breath is equally diffused; his trunk is no less abundant; his abdomen is alike sull; and his seet are the earth; his breast is the altar; his hair is the facred grass; his heart, the household fire; his mind, the consecrated slame; and his mouth, the oblation.

"The food, which first reaches him, should be solemnly offered: and the first oblation, which he makes, he should present with these words: "Be this oblation to breath efficacious." Thus breath is satisfied; and, in that, the eye is satisfied; and, in the eye, the sun is content; and, in the sun, the sky is gratisfied; and, in the sky, heaven and the sun, and whatever is dependent, become replete: and after that, he himself [who eats] is fully gratisfied with offspring and cattle; with vigour proceeding from food, and splendour arising from holy observances."

"Bur whoever makes an oblation to fire, being unacquainted with the universal soul, acts in the same manner, as one who throws live coals into ashes: while he, who presents an oblation, possessing that knowledge, has made an offering in all worlds, in all beings, in all souls. As the tip of dry grass, which is cast into the fire, readily kindles; so are all the saults of that man consumed. He, who knows this, has only presented an oblation to the universal soul, even though he knowingly give the residue to a Chándála. For, on this point, a text is [preserved]: "As, in this world, hungry infants press round their mother; so do all beings await the holy oblation; they await the holy oblation."

^{*} Several fimilar paragraphs, respecting four other oblations, so presented to other inspirations of air, are here omitted for the sake of brevity. The taking of a mouthful, by an orthodox Hindu theologian, is considered as an efficacious oblation: and denominated Pranagmibatra.

Another Upanishad of the Sámavéda belongs to the Sác'bá of the Talavacáras. It is called the "Cénésbita," or "Céna" Upanishad, from the word, or words, with which it opens: and, as appears from Sancara's commentary,* this treatise is the ninth chapter (ad'byáya) of the work, from which it is extracted. It is comprised in four sections (c'banda). The form is that of a dialogue between instructors and their pupils. The subject is, as in other Upanishads, a disquisition on abstruse and mystical theology. I shall not make any extract from it, but proceed to describe the fourth and last Véda.

ON THE AT HARVA-VEDA.

The Sanhitá, or collection of prayers and invocations, belonging to the A'tharvan'a, is comprised in twenty books (cánda), subdivided into sections (anuváca), hymns (súcta), and verses (rich). Another mode of division by chapters (prapátaca) is also indicated. The number of verses is stated at 6015; the sections exceed a hundred; and the hymns amount to more than seven hundred and sixty. The number of chapters is forty nearly.

A PASSAGE from this Veda was quoted by Sir W. Jones in his effay on the literature of the Hindus +; and a version of it was given, as a

I have S'ANCARA's gloss, with the illustrations of his annotator, and the ample commentary of CRISHNA'.

HANDA: besides a separate gloss, with annotations, on the similar Upanishad belonging to the Atharos.

⁺ Afiatick Researches, Vol. L. P. 347.

somptiles the whole of the forty-third hymn of the nineteenth book *. In the beginning of the same book, I find a hymn (numbered as the fixth) which is almost word for word the same with that, which has been before cited from the thirty-first chapter of the white Yajush +. Some of the verses are indeed transposed, and here and there a word differs: for example, it opens by describing the primeval man (purusha) with a thousand arms, instead of a thousand heads. The purport is nevertheless the same; and it is needless, therefore, to insert a version of it in this place.

The next hymn, in the same book, includes an important passage. It mames the twenty-eight asterisms in their order, beginning with Crittica: and seems to refer the solftice to the end of Aslessa, or beginning of Magba. I call it an important passage; first, because it shows, that the introduction of the twenty-eighth asterism is as ancient, as the At'barva-véda; and secondly, because it authorizes a presumption, that the whole of that Véda, like this particular hymn, may have been composed when the solftice was reckoned in the middle, or at the end, of Aslessa †, and the origin of the Zodiack was placed at the beginning of Crittica. On the obvious conclusion, respecting the age of the Véda, I shall enlarge in another place.

^{*} Sir W. Jones cites it, as from the first book; I suspect, that, in Colonel Polize's copy, the nine-teenth book might stand first in the volume. It does so, in General Martin's transcript, though the colophon be correct. I have another, and very complete, copy of this Vida. General Martin's, which I also possess, is desective: containing only the ten first and the two last books. An ancient fragment, also in my possession, does not extend beyond the fixth.

⁺ Afiatick Refearches, Vol. VII. P. 251.

The middle of Aslifta, if the divisions be twenty-feven, and its end, when they are twenty-eight equal portions, give the same place for the colure.

An incantation, which appears to be the same that is mentioned by Sir W. Jones, * occurs in the fourth section of the nineteenth book. It is indeed a tremendous incantation; especially the three Suctas, or hymns, which are numbered 28. 29. and 30. A single line will be a sufficient specimen of these imprecations, in which, too, there is much sameness.

' DESTROY, O sacred grass, my foes; exterminate my enemies; annihilate all those, who hate me, O precious gem!'

THE Atharva vėda, as is well known, contains many forms of imprecation for the destruction of enemies. But it must not be inferred, that such is the chief subject of that Vėda; since it also contains a great number of prayers for safety and for the averting of calamities: and, like the other Vėdas, numerous hymns to the gods, with prayers to be used at solemn rites and religious exercises, excepting such as are named Yajnya.

THE Gopat'ba Bràbmaña appears to belong to the second part of this Vèda. Not having seen a commentary, nor an index, of this work, I can only speak of it, from a copy in my possession: this contains sive chapters (Prapataca), with the date of the transcript * and name of the transcriber, at the end of the sisth, as is usual in the colophon at the close of a volume.

THE first chapter of this Gópai ha Bráhmaña traces the origin of the universe from Brahme; and it appears from the fourth section of this chapter, that AT'HARVAN is considered as a Prajapati appointed by Brahme to create and protect subordinate beings.

[·] Aflatick Refearches, Vol. I. p. 348.

⁺ Darbba, Poa Cynosuroides.

^{*} It is dated at Mai'burd in the year (Samuet) 1732.

In the fifth chapter, several remarkable passages, identifying the primeval person (purusha) with the year (samuatsara), convey marked allusions to the calendar. In one place (the fifth section), besides stating the year to contain twelve or thirteen lunar months, the subdivision of that period is pursued to 360 days; and, thence, to 10,800 muburtas or hours.

I PROCEED to notice the most remarkable part of the At barva-veda, confisting of the theological treatises, entitled Upanishads, which are appendent on it. They are computed at fifty-two: but this number is completed by reckoning, as distinct Upanishads, different parts of a single tract. Four such treatises, comprising eight Upanishads, together with six of those before described as appertaining to other Védas, are perpetually cited in différents on the Vèdanta.* Others are either more sparingly, or not at all, quoted.

Ir may be here proper to explain what is meant by Upanifoad: In dictionaries, this term is made equivalent to Rehefya, which fignifies mystery. This last term is, in fact, frequently employed by Menu and other ancient authors, where the commentators understand Upanifoads to be meant. But neither the etymology, nor the acceptation, of the word, which is now to be explained, has any direct connexion with the idea of secrecy, concealment, or mystery. Its proper meaning, according to Sancara, Sayan'a, and all the commentators, is divine science, or the knowledge of God: and, according to the same authorities, it is equally applicable to theology itself, and to a book in which this science is taught. Its derivation is from the verb sad (shad-iri) to destroy, to move or to weary, preceded by the prepositions upa near, and ni continually, or nis certainly. The sense, properly

The Céna and Ch'bándógya from the Sámavéda; the Vribad áran'yaca and Irával'ya from the white Vajush, and the Taitiniyaca from the black Tajush; the Aitaréya from the Rigweda; and the Cat'ha, Pral-na, Mun'daca and Mán'dúcya from the At'harvan'a. To these should be added the Nrissuba tápaniya.

deducible from this etymology, according to the different explanations given by commentators, invariably points to the knowledge of the divine perfections, and to the confequent attainment of beatitude through exemption from passions.*

The whole of the Indian theology is professedly founded on the Upanishads +. Those, which have been before described, have been shown to be extracts from the Véda. The rest are also considered as appertaining to the Indian scripture: it does not, however, clearly appear, whether they are detached essays, or have been extracted from a Bráhmanta of the At'barva-véda. I have not found any of them in the Sanhitá of the At'barvana, nor in the Gópat'ba bráhmana.

In the best copies of the sifty-two Upanishads, ‡ the first sisteen are stated to have been taken from the Saunaciyas, whose S'ác'há seems to be the principal one of the Ar'harva-véda. The remaining thirty-seven appertain to various S'ác'hás, mostly to that of the Paippaládis: but some of them, as will be shown, are borrowed from other Védas.

THE Mundaca, divided into fix fections unequally distributed in two parts, is the first Upanishad of the A't barvan'a; and is also one of the most important, for the doctrines which it contains. It has been fully illustrated by S'ANCARA, whose gloss is affished by the annotations of ANANDAJ-

^{*} SANCARA, and ANANDA'S RAMA on the Veibad áranyaca; as also the commentaries on other Upanifoods: especially Sancara on the Carbaca. Other authors concur in assigning the same acceptation and etymology, to the word; they vary, only, in the mode of reconciling the derivation with the sense.

⁺ It is expressly to affirmed in the Védánta Jára. v. 3.

[‡] I possess an excellent copy, which corresponds with one transcribed for Mr. BLAQUIERE, from a fimilar collection of Upanilbade belonging to the late Sir W. Jones. In two other copies, which I also obtained at Benarce, the arrangement differs, and several Upanishade are inserted, the genuineness of which is questionable; while others are advanted, which belong exclusively to the Vajurvéda.

NYA'NA. The opening of this Upanishad, comprising the whole of the first section, is here subjoined.

BRAHMA' was first of the gods, framer of the universe, guardian of the world. He taught the knowledge of God, which is the foundation of all science, to his eldest fon Atharva. That holy science, which Brahma' revealed to Atharvan, * was communicated by him to Angir, who transmitted it to Satyavaha, the descendant of Bharadwa'ja: and this son of Bharadwa'ja imparted the traditional science to Angiras.

SAUNACA, or the fon of SUNACA, a mighty householder, addressing Angiras with due respect, asked "What is it, O venerable sage, through which, when known, this universe is understood?"

To him the holy personage thus replied: "Two sorts of science must be distinguished; as they, who know God, declare: the supreme science, and another. This other is the Rigvéda, the Yajurvéda, the Samavéda, the At'barvavéda; the rules of accentuation, the rites of religion, grammar, the glossary and explanation of obscure terms, prosody, and astronomy: also the Itibása and Purana; and logick, with the rules of interpretation, and the system of moral duties.

"But the supreme science is that, by which this unperishable [nature] is apprehended; invisible [or imperceptible, as is that nature]: not to be seized; not to be deduced; devoid of colour; destitute of eyes and ears;

^{*} SANCARA remarks, that AT'HARVA, or AT'HARVAN, may have been the first creature, in one of the many modes of creation, which have been practifed by BRAHMA'.

⁺ Meaning the prayers contained in the four Védar, disjoined from theology.

without hands or feet, yet ever variously pervading all: minute, unalterable; and contemplated by the wife for the source of beings.

"As the spider spins and gathers back [its thread]; as plants sprout on the earth; as hairs grow on a living person; so is this universe, here, produced from the unperishable nature. By contemplation, the vast one germinates; from him, sood [or body] is produced; and thence, successively, breath, mind, real [elements], worlds, and immortality arising from [good] deeds. The omniscient is prosound contemplation, consisting in the knowledge of him, who knows all: and, from that, the [manifested] vast one, as well as names, forms, and food, proceed: and this is truth."

THE Prasna, which is the second Upanishad, and equally important with the first, consists, I ke it, of fix sections; and has been similarly interpreted by S'ANCARA and BA'LACR ISHN'A. * In this dialogue, Suce's'A the son of BHARADWA'JA, SATYACA'MA descended from S'tvi. SAURY-A'YANI a remote descendant of the Sun, but belonging to the family of GARGA, CAUS'ALYA surnamed A's'WALA'YANA, or son of As'WALA, VAIDARBHI of the race of BHRIGU, together with CABAND'HI surnamed CA'TYAYANA or descendant of CATYA, are introduced as seeking the knowledge of theology, and applying to Pippala'DA for instruction. They successively interrogate him concerning the origin of creatures, the nature of the gods, the union of life with body, and the connexion of thoughts with the soul.

THE nine succeeding Upanishads (from the 3d to the 11th) are of inserior importance, and have been left unexplained by the writers on the Vedanta,

^{*} I have feveral copies of the text, besides commentaries on both Upanifbads.

because they do not directly relate to the Sariraca, or theological doctrine respecting the nature of the soul *. They are enumerated in the margin +.

THE Manducya follows, and confifts of four parts, each conflituting a diffinct Upanishad. This abstructe treatile, comprising the most material doctrines of the Védánta, has been elucidated by the labours of GAUD'APA'DA, and S'ANCARA. GAUD'APA'DA'S commentary is affissed by the notes of ANANDAGIRI.

Among the miscellaneous Upanishads, the first thirteen (from the 16th to the 28th) have been lest uncommented by the principal expounders of the Vėdanta, for a reason before mentioned. The names of these Upanishads will be found in the subjoined note ‡.

The following fix (from the 29th to the 34th,) constitute the Nrisinba Tápaniya: five of them compose the Púrva Tápaniya or first part of the Upanishad so called; and the last, and most important, is entitled Uttara Tápaniya. It has been expounded by GAUD'APADA; as the first part (if not the whole Upanishad) has been, by SANCARA. The object of this treatise appears to be the identifying of NRISINHA with all the gods: but, so far as I comprehend its meaning (for I have not sufficiently examined

This reason is assigned by the annotator on S'ANCARA's gloss, at the beginning of his notes on the Mun'daca Upanishad.

^{† 3}d Brahme-vidyá. 4th Cfburicá. 5th Chulica. 6th and 7th Al harva-liras. 8th Garbha. 9th Maba. 10th Brahme. 11th Prádlágnihótra.

¹⁶th Nila-rudra. 17th Núda-vindu. 18th Brahme-vindu. 19th Amrita-vindu. 20th D'hyána-vindu. 21ft Téjó-vindu. 22d Yóga-fichú. 23d Yóga-tatwa. 24th Sannyófa. 25th Armi'ya or Arun'i-yóga. 26th Canl'barrutl. 27th Pin'da. 28th Atmá.

[§] I have feveral copies of the text, and of GAUD'APA'DA's commentary; with a fingle transcript of SANCARA's gloss on the five first of the treatifes entitled Tapaniya.

It to pronounce confidently on this point;) the fabulous incarnation of VISHNU, in the shape of a vast lion, does not seem to be at all intended; and the name of NR ISINHA is applied to the divinity, with a superlative import, but with no apparent allusion to that fable.

THE two next Upanishads constitute the first and second parts of the Cathaca, or Valli, or Cathavalli (for the name varies in different copies). It belongs properly to the Yajurvéda, as before mentioned; but it is usually cited from the Atharvana; and has been commented, as appertaining to this Véda, by S'ANCARA, and by BA'LACRISHN'A.*

It comprises fix sections, severally entitled Valli; but constituting two chapters (ad byáya), denominated Púrva-valli and Uttara-valli. The dialogue is supported by Mrityu or death, and the prince Nacht-cetas; whom his father Vajas'ravasa consigned to Yama, being provoked by the boy's importunately asking him, (through zeal, however, for the success of a facrifice performed to ensure universal conquest;) " to whom wilt thou give me?" Yama receives Nachtcetas with honor, and instructs him in theology, by which beatitude and exemption from worldly sufferings may be attained, through a knowledge of the true nature of the foul, and its identity with the supreme being. The doctrine is similar to that of other principal Upanishads.

THE Cénéstita or Céna Upanishad is the thirty-seventh of the At'harvaña, and agrees, almost word for word, with a treatise bearing the same

^{*} The commentary of S'ANCARA is, as usual, concise and perspicuous: and that of Balacrisha'A, copious but clear. Besides their commentaries, and several copies of the text, together with a paracopious but clear. Besides their commentaries, and several copies of the text, together with a paracopious but clear. Besides their commentaries, and several copies of the text, together with a paracopious but clear. Besides their commentaries, and several copies of the text, together with a paracopious but clear. Besides their commentaries, and several copies of the text, together with a paracopious but clear. Besides their commentaries, and several copies of the text, together with a paracopious but clear. Besides their commentaries, and several copies of the text, together with a paracopious but clear. Besides their commentaries, and several copies of the text, together with a paracopious but clear. Besides their commentaries, and several copies of the text, together with a paracopious but clear. Besides their commentaries, and several copies of the text, together with a paracopious but clear. Besides their commentaries, and several copies of the text, together with a paracopious but clear. Besides their commentaries are several copies of the text, together with a paracopious but clear. Besides their commentaries are several copies of the text, together with a paracopious but clear. Besides their commentaries are several copies of the text, together with a paracopious clear. Besides their commentaries are several copies of the text, together with a paracopious copies of the text, together with a paracopious clear. Besides the text of the text

ever, written separate commentaries on both, for the sake of exhibiting their different interpretations*. Both commentaries have, as usual, been annotated.

A short Upanishad, entitled Náráyana, is followed by two others (39th and 40th), which form the first and second parts of the Vriban Náráyana. This corresponds, as before mentioned, with an Upanishad, bearing the same title, and terminating the Aranya of the Taittiriya Tajurvéda.

On the three subsequent Upanishads, I shall offer no remarks; they have not been commented, among such as relate to the Védánta; and I have not ascertained, whence they are extracted.

UNDER the name of Anandavalli and Bhrigu-valli, two Upanishads follow (44th and 45th), which have been already noticed as extracts from the Aratiya of the black Yajush, distinguished by the titles of Taittiriya and Varuti.

The remaining feven Upanishads that are unexplained by commentators on the Vėdánta. They are indeed sufficiently easy, not to require a laboured interpretation: but there is room to regret the want of an ancient commentary, which might affish in determining whether these Upanishads be genuine. The reason of this remark will be subsequently explained.

[·] Here, as in other instances, I speak from copies in my possession.

⁺ Their titles are 4til Sarv'spanisbattara. 42d Hanfa. and 43d Parama banfa.

^{‡ 46}th Garuds. 47th Cálágni-sudra. 48th and 49th Rama tapaniya first and second parts. 50th Caivalya. 51st Jabala. 52d Aframa.

ENTERTAINING no doubts concerning the genuineness of the other works, which have been here described, I think it, nevertheless, proper to state some of the reasons, on which my belief of their authenticity is founded. It appears necessary to do so; since a late author has abruptly pronounced the Vėdos to be forgeries*.

It has been already mentioned, that the practice of reading the principal Védas in superstitious modes, tends to preserve the genuine text. Copies, prepared for such modes of recital, are spread in various parts of India, especially Benares, Jeyenagar, and the banks of the Gódávéri. Interpolations and forgeries have become impracticable, since this usage has been introduced: and the Rigvéda and both the Vajushes, belonging to the several Sác'hás, in which that custom has been adopted, have been, therefore, long safe from alteration.

THE explanatory table of contents, belonging to the feveral Vedas, also tends to ensure the purity of the text; since the subject and length of each passage are therein specified. The index, again, is itself secured from alteration by more than one exposition of its meaning, in the form of a perpetual commentary.

It is a received and well grounded opinion of the learned in *India*, that no book is altogether fafe from changes and interpolations, until it have been commented: but when once a gloss has been published, no fabrication could afterwards succeed; because the perpetual commentary notices every passage, and, in general, explains every word.

COMMENTARIES on the Védas themselves exist, which testify the au-

Mr. PINKERTON in his Modern Geography, Vol. II.

thenticity of the text. Some are stated to have been composed in early times: I shall not, however, rely on any, but those, to which I can with certainty refer. I have fragments of UVATA's gloss; the greatest part of Sa'van'a's on several Védas; and a complete one by Mahid'-HARA on a single Véda. I also possess nearly the whole of S'ANCARA's commentary on the Upanishads; and a part of GAUD'APA'DA's; with others, by different authors of less note.

The genuineness of the commentaries, again, is secured by a crowd of annotators, whose works expound every passage in the original gloss; and whose annotations are again interpreted by others. This observation is particularly applicable to the most important parts of the Védas, which, as is natural, are the most studiously and elaborately explained.

THE Nirucla, with its copious commentaries, on the obsolete words and passages of scripture, further authenticates the accuracy of the text, as there explained. The references, and quotations, in those works, agree with the text of the Védas, as we now find it.

THE grammar of the Sanscrit language contains rules applicable to the anomalies of the ancient dialect. The many and voluminous commentaries on that, and on other parts of the grammar, abound in examples cited from the Vėdas: and here, also, the present text is consonant to those ancient quotations.

PHILOSOPHICAL works, especially the numerous commentaries on the aphorisms of the Mimansa and Vedanta, illustrate and support every position advanced in them, by ample quotations from the Vedas. The object of the Mimansa is to establish the cogency of precepts contained in scripture, and to surnish maxims for its interpretation; and, for the same purpose, rules of reasoning, from which a system of logick is deducible. The object of the Védánta is to illustrate the system of mystical theology taught by the supposed revelation, and to show its application to the enthusiastick pursuit of unimpassioned perfection and mystical intercourse with the divinity. Both are closely connected with the Védas: and here, likewise, the authenticity of the text is supported by ancient references and citations.

Numerous collections of aphorisms, by ancient authors *, on religious ceremonies, contain, in every line, references to passages of the Védas. Commentaries on these aphorisms cite the passages at greater length. Separate treatises also interpret the prayers used at divers ceremonies. Rituals, some ancient, others modern, contain a full detail of the ceremonial with all the prayers which are to be recited at the various religious rites, for which they are formed. Such rituals are extant, not only for ceremonies which are constantly observed, but for others which are rarely practised; and even for such, as have been long since disused. In all, the passages, taken from the Védas, agree with the text of the general compilation.

THE Indian legislators, with their commentators, and the copious digests and compilations from their works, frequently refer to the Vėdas; especially on those points of the law, which concern religion. Here also,

The Sutrat of A's' wala' tana, Sa'nc'hya' yana, Baudd'ha' tana, Ca' tya' yana, Lat'a' yana Go'bhila, A' pastamba, &c.

Thefe, appertaining to various Sáckás of the Védas, conflicte the calpa or fystem of religious observances. I have here enumerated a few only. 'The list might be much enlarged, from my own collection; and still more fo, from quotations by various compilers: for the original works and their commentaries, as well as compilations from them, are every numerous,

the references are confissent with the present text of the Indian scrip-

WRITERS on ethics fometimes draw from the Vėdas illustrations of moral maxims; and quote from their holy writ, passages at full length, in support of ethical precepts *. These quotations are found to agree with the received text of the facred books.

CITATIONS from the Indian scripture occur in every branch of literature, studied by orthodox Hindus. Astronomy, so far as it relates to the ealendar, has frequent occasion for reference to the Védas. Medical writers sometimes cite them; and even annotators on profane poets occasionally refer to this authority, in explaining passages which contain allusions to the facred text.

EVEN the writings of the heretical sects exhibit quotations from the Védas. I have met with such in the books of the Jainas, unattended by any indication of their doubting the genuineness of the original, though they do not receive its doctrines, nor acknowledge its cogency †.

In all these branches of *Indian* literature, while perusing or consulting; the works of various authors, I have found perpetual references to the: Védas, and have frequently verified the quotations. On this ground, I defend the authentick text of the *Indian* scripture, as it is now extant;

A work entitled Niti manjari is an inftance of this mode of treating moral fubjects.

⁺ The S'atopa' ba Brabmada, especially the 14th book, or Vribadaran jaca, is repeatedly cited with exact references to the numbers of the chapters and sections, in a fragment of a treatise by a Jaina author, the communication of which I owe to Mr. Speke, among other fragments collected by the late Capt. Hoake, and purchased at the fale of that gentleman's library.

and, although the passages, which I have so verified, are sew, compared with the great volume of the Védas, yet I have sufficient grounds to argue, that no skill, in the nesarious arts of forgery and falsification, could be equal to the arduous task of fabricating large works, to agree with the very numerous citations, pervading thousands of volumes, composed on diverse subjects, in every branch of literature, and dispersed through the various nations of Hindus inhabiting Hindustan, and the Dekhin.

If any part of what is now received as the Vėda, cannot stand the test of such a comparison, it may be rejected as at least doubtful, if not certainly spurious. Even such parts, as cannot be fully confirmed by a strict scrutiny, must be either received with caution, or be set aside as questionable. I shall point out parts of the fourth Vėda, which I consider to be in this predicament. But, with the exceptions now indicated, the various portions of the Vėdas, which have been examined, are as yet free from such suspicion; and, until they are impeached by more than vague affertion, have every title to be admitted as genuine copies of books, which (however little deserving of it) have been long held in reverence by the Hindus.

I AM apprized, that this opinion will find opponents, who are inclined to dispute the whole of *Indian* literature, and to consider it all as consisting of forgeries fabricated within a few years, or at best in the last few ages. This appears to be grounded on affertions and conjectures, which were inconsiderately hazarded, and which have been eagerly received and extravagantly strained.

In the first place, it should be observed, that a work must not be hastily condemned as a forgery, because, on examination, it appears not to have

been really written by the person, whose name is usually coupled with quotations from it. For, if the very work itself show, that it does not purport to be written by that person, the fase conclusion is, that it was never meant to be ascribed to him. Thus, the two principal codes of Hindu law are ufually cited as Menu's and YA'JNYAWALCYA's: but, in the codes themselves, those are dialogists not authors: and the best commentators expressly declare, that these institutes were written by other persons than MENU and YA'JNYAWALCYA*. The Surya Sidd'banta is not pretended to have been written by MEYA: but he is introduced as receiving instruction from a partial incarnation of the Sun: and their conversation constitutes a dialogue, which is recited by another person in a different company. The text of the Sanc'bya philosophy, from which the feet of Budd'ha seems to have borrowed its doctrines, is not the work of CAPILA himfelf, though vulgarly ascribed to him: but it purports to be composed by I'sWARA CRISH-N'A; and he is stated to have received the doctrine mediately from CA-PILA, through successive teachers, after its publication by PANCHASIC'HA, who had been himself instructed by Asuri, the pupil of CAPILA.

To adduce more instances would be tedious: they abound in every branch of science. Among works, the authors of which are unknown, and which therefore, as usual, are vulgarly ascribed to some celebrated name, many contain undisguised evidence of a more modern date. Such are those parts of Puráñas, in which the prophetick style is assumed, because they relate to events posterior to the age of the persons, who are speakers in the dialogue. Thus, Budd'ha is mentioned under various names in the Matsya, Vishau, Bhágavata, Garud'a, Nrisinha and other puráñas. I must not omit to notice, that Sancar'a'cha'rya, the great commentator on

VIJNYA'NAYO'GI, also named VIJNYA'NE'S WARA, who commented the institutes, which bear the name of Ya'JNYAWALCYA, states the text to be an abridgment by a different author.

the abstrusest parts of the Vėdas, is celebrated in the Vribad d'harma puráña* as an incarnation of Vishnu; and Gaud'Apa'da is described, in the Sancara vijeya, as the pupil of Suca the son of Vya'sa.+

I no not mean to fay, that forgeries are not sometimes committed; or that books are not counterfeited in whole or in part. Sir W. Jones, Mr. Bla-Quiere, and myself, have detected interpolations. Many greater forgeries have been attempted: some have for a time succeeded, and been ultimately discovered: in regard to others, detection has immediately overtaken the fraudulent attempt. A conspicuous instance of systematick fabrication, by which Captain Wilford was for a time deceived, has been brought to light, as has been fully stated by that gentleman. But, though some attempts have been abortive, others may doubtless have succeeded. I am myself inclined to adopt an opinion supported by many learned Hindus, who consider the celebrated Sri Bhágavata, as the work of a grammarian, supposed to have lived about six hundred years ago.

In this, as in feveral other instances, some of which I shall have like-wise occasion to notice, the learned among the Hindus have resisted the impositions that have been attempted. Many others might be stated, where no imposition has been either practised or intended. In Europe, as well as in the East, works are often published anonymously with sictitious introductions: and diverse compositions, the real authors of which are not known, have on insufficient grounds been dignished with celebrated names. To

In the 78th chapter of the 2d part. This is the Purana, mentioned by me with doubt in a former effay. I have fince procured a copy of its

⁺ If this were not a fable, the real age of Vra's a might be hence afcertained; and, confequently, the period, when the Védar were arranged in their prefent form: Go'VINDANAT'HA, the instructor of S'ANCARA, is stated to have been the pupil of G AUD'APA'DA; and, according to the traditions generally received in the eninfula of India, S'ANCARA lived little more than eight bundred years ago rally received in the eninfula of India, S'ANCARA lived little more than eight bundred years ago.

fuch instances, which are frequent every where, the imputation of forgery, does not attach.

IN Europe, too, literary forgeries have been committed both in ancient and modern times. The poems, ascribed to Orrheus, are generally, admitted not to have been composed by that poet, if indeed he ever existed. Nani, or Annius, of Viterbo, is now universally considered as an impostor, notwithstanding the desence of his publication and of himself by some among the learned of his age. In our own country, and in recent times, literary frauds have been not unfrequent. But a native of India, who should retort the charge, and argue from a few instances, that the whole literature of Europe, which is held ancient, consists of modern forgeries, would be justly censured for his presumption.

We must not then indiscriminately condemn the whole literature of India. Even Father HARDOUIN, when he advanced a similar paradox respecting the works of ancient writers, excepted some compositions of Cicero, Virgil, Horace and Pliny.

It is necessary in this country, as every where else, to be guarded against literary impositions. But doubt and suspicion should not be carried to an extreme length. Some sabricated works, some interpolated passages, will be detected by the sagacity of criticks in the progress of researches into the learning of the east: but the greatest part of the books, received by the learned among the Hindus, will assuredly be sound genuine. I do not doubt, that the Védas, of which an account has been here given, will appear to be of this description.

In pronouncing them to be genuine, I mean to fay, that they are the

fame compositions, which, under the same title of Veda, have been revered by Hindus for hundreds, if not thousands, of years. I think it probable, that they were compiled by Dwa'pa'yana, the person who is said to have collected them, and who is thence surnamed Vyása, or the compiler. I can perceive no difficulty in admitting, that those passages, which are now ascribed to human authors, either as the Rishis, or as the reciters of the text, were attributed to the same persons, so long ago, as when the compilation was made: and, probably, in most instances, those passages were really composed by the alleged authors. Concerning such texts, as are assigned to divine persons according to Hindu mythology, it may be fairly concluded, that the true writers of them were not known when the compilation was made: and, for this reason, they were assigned to sabulous personages.

The different portions, which constitute the Védas, must have been written at various times. The exact period, when they were compiled, or that, in which the greatest part was composed, cannot be determined with accuracy and considence from any facts yet ascertained. But the country may; since many rivers of India are mentioned in more than one text: and, in regard to the period, I incline to think, that the ceremonies called Tajnya, and the prayers to be recited at those ceremonies, are as old as the calendar, which purports to have been framed for such religious rites.

To each Veda, a treatise, under the title of Jybtish, is annexed; which explains the adjustment of the calendar, for the purpose of fixing the proper periods for the performance of religious duties. It is adapted to the comparison of solar and lunar time with the vulgar or civil year; and was evidently formed in the infancy of astronomical knowledge. From the

rules delivered in the treatifes, which I have examined *, it appears, that the cycle (Yuga) there employed, is a period of five years only. The month is lunar; but at the end, and in the middle, of the quinquennial period, an intercalation is admitted by doubling one month. Accordingly, the cycle comprises three common lunar years, and two, which contain thirteen lunations each. The year is divided into fix feafons; and each month, into half months. A complete lunation is measured by thirty lunar days; some one of which must of course, in alternate months, be sunk, to make the dates agree with the nychemera. For this purpose, the fixty-second day appears to be deducted +: and, thus, the cycle of five years confifts of 1860 lunar days, or 1830 nychemera; subject to a further correction, for the excess of nearly four days above the true sidereal year: but the exact quantity of this correction, and the method of making it, according to this calendar, have not been yet sufficiently investigated to be here stated. The zodiack is divided into twenty-feven afterisms, or figns, the first of which, both in the Tyótish and in the Védas, is Crittica or the Pleiads. The place of the colures, according to these astronomical treatises, will be forthwith mentioned: but none of them hint at a motion of the equinoxes. The measure of a day by thirty hours, and that of an hour by fixty minutes, areexplained; and the method of constructing a elepsydra is taught.

This ancient Hindu calendar, corresponding, in its divisions of time, and in the assigned origin of the ecliptick, with several passages of the Védas, is evidently the foundation of that, which, after successive corrections, is now received by the Hindus throughout India. The progress of those corrections

^{*} I have several copies of one such treatise; besides a commentary on the Tyotish of the Rigweda, by ananknown author; which is accordingly assigned to a fabulous personage, SE'SHA NA'GA.

⁺ The Athenian year was regulated in a fimilar manner: but, according to Geminus, it was the fixty third day, which was deducted. Perhaps this Hindu calendar may affilt in explaining the Gresian system of I lumar months.

ons may be traced, from the cycle of five * to one of fixty lunar years (which is noticed in many popular treatifes on the calendar, and in the commentary of the Jyótish); and, thence, to one of fixty years of Jupiter; and, finally, to the greater astronomical periods of twelve thousand years of the gods, and a hundred years of Brahma'. But the history of Indian astronomy is not the subject of this essay. I shall only cite from the treatises, here referred to, a passage in which the then place of the colures is stated.

- · Swar ácramété sómá'rcau yadi sácam savásavau; syát tadádiyugam, mághas, tapas, śucló, 'yanan by udac.
- * Prapadyété śravisht' bádau súryachándramasáv udac; sárp'árd bé dácshin'áreas tu: mág' ba-śrávańayòb sadá.
- · Gharma-vridd'hir, apám prast bah, eshapá-brásu, udag gatau: daeshińt tau viparyastau, shań muburty ayanena tu.

THE following is a literal translation of this remarkable passage, which occurs in both the treatiles examined by me.

- WHEN the sun and moon ascend the sky together, being in the constellation over which the Vasus preside; then does the cycle begin, and the seal standard sta
 - * THE fun and moon turn towards the north at the beginning of Sravish-

The treatifes in question contain allusions to the ages of the world: but without explaining, whether any, and what, specifick period of time was assigned to each age. This cycle of five years is mentioned by any, and what, specifick period of time was assigned to each age. This cycle of five years is mentioned by the name of Yuga, in Para'sara's institutes of law edited by Suvrata, and entitled Vribat Para'sara. It the name of Yuga, in Para'sara's institutes of law edited by Suvrata, and that of 3600 years, deduced is there (Ch. 12. v. 83.) stated, as the basis of calculation for larger cycles: and that of 3600 years, deduced from one of fixty (containing twelve simple yugas), is denominated the Yuga of Va'Crati; whence the yuga of from one of fixty (containing twelve simple yugas), is denominated the Tuga of Va'Crati; whence the yuga of Para'sara'r'ha containing 216,000 years is derived; and twice that constitutes the Cali-yuga. The still Praja'na'r'ha containing 216,000 years is derived; and twice that constitutes the Cali-yuga.

t'bá; but the sun turns towards the south in the middle of the constellation over which the serpents preside; and this [his turn towards the south, and towards the north,] always [happens] in [the months of] Mágba and Srávana.

In the northern progress, an increase of day, and decrease of night, take place, amounting to a prast ba (or 32 palas) of water; in the southern, both are reversed (i. e. the days decrease, and the nights increase), and [the difference amounts] by the journey, to six muburtas*.

Sravisht'bá is given, in all the dictionaries of the Sanscrit language, as another name of D'ba isht'bá; and is used for it, in more than one passage of the Védas. This is the constellation which is facred to the Vasas; as Aslèshá is, to the serpents. The deities, presiding over the twenty-seven constellations, are enumerated in three other verses of the Jyótish belonging to the Yajush, and in several places of the Védas. The Jyótish of the Rich differs in transposing two of them; but the commentator corrects this as a faulty reading.

In several passages of the Jyblish, these names of deities are used for the constellations over which they preside; especially one, which states the situation of the moon, when the sun reaches the tropick, in years other than the first of the cycle. Every where these terms are explained, as indicating the constellations, which that enumeration allots to them. Texts, contained in the Vedas thems lives, consists the correspondence; and the connexion of Aswins and the Aswins is indeed decisive.

^{*} I cannot, as yet, reconcile the time here flated. Its explanation appears to depend on the confitution of the elepfydra, which I do not well understand; as the rule for its confitution is obscure, and involves forme difficulties, which remain yet unfolved.

[#] I flaink it needless to quote the original of this enumeration.

Hence it is clear, that D'banisht'bà and Asleshà are the constellations meant; and that when this Hindu calendar was regulated, the solstitial points were reckoned to be at the beginning of the one and in the middle of the other: and such was the situation of those cardinal points, in the sourteenth century before the Christian era. I formerly * had occasion to show, from another passage of the Védas, that the correspondence of seasons with months, as there stated, and as also suggested in the passage now quoted from the Jyótish, agrees with such a situation of the cardinal points.

I now proceed to fulfil the promise of indicating such parts of the fourth Vėda, as appear liable to suspicion. These are the remaining detached Upanishads, which are not received into the best collections of sisty-two theological tracts, belonging to the At'barva-vėda; and even some of those which are there inserted, but which, so far as my inquiries have yet reached, do not appear to have been commented by ancient authors, nor to have been quoted in the old commentaries on the Vedánta. Two of these Upanishads are particularly suspicious: one entitled Ráma tápaniya, conssisting of two parts (Púrva and Uttara); another called Gópála—tápaniya, also comprising two parts, of which one is named the Cristina Upanishad. The introduction to the first of these works contains a summary, which agrees in substance with the mythological history of the husband of Si'ra, and conqueror of Lancá. The other exalts the hero of Mat'burá.

ALTHOUGH the Rama tapaniya be inserted in all the collections of Upanishads, which I have seen; and the Gópála tapaniya appear in some; yet I am inclined to doubt their genuineness, and to suspect that they have been written in times, modern, when compared with the remainder of the

[.] Afiatick Refearches, Vol. VII. p. 283.

Wedas. This suspicion is chiefly grounded on the opinion, that the sects, which now worship Rama and Crishna as incarnations of Vishnor, are comparatively new. I have not found, in any other part of the Vedas, the least trace of such a worship. The real doctrine of the whole Indian scripture is the unity of the deity, in whom the universe is comprehended: and the seeming polytheism, which it exhibits, offers the elements, and the stars and planets, as gods. The three principal manifestations of the divinity, with other personified attributes and energies, and most of the other gods of Hindu mythology, are indeed mentioned, or at least indicated, in the Vedas. But the worship of deisied heroes is no part of that system; nor are the incarnations of deities suggested in any other portion of the text, which I have yet seen; though such are sometimes hinted at by the commentators,

According to the notions, which I entertain of the real history of the Hindu religion, the worship of Rama, and of Crishn'a, by the Vaishmas, and that of Maha'de'va and Bhava'n' by the Saivas and Sactar, have been introduced, since the perfecution of the Bauddhas and Jainas. The institutions of the Védas are anterior to Buddhas, whose theology seems to have been borrowed from the system of Carla, and whose most conspicuous practical doctrine is stated to have been the unlawfulness of killing animals, which in his opinion were too frequently slain for the purpose of eating their sless, under the pretence of performing a sicrifice or Yajnya. The overthrow of the sect of Buddha, in India, has not effected the full revival of the religious system inculcated in the Védas. Most of what is there taught, is now obsolete: and, in its slead, new orders of religious devotees have been instituted; and new forms of religious ceremonis have been established. R tua's sounded on the Purasa, and observances borroved from a worse source, the Tantras, have, in

great measure, antiquated the institutions of the Védas. In particular, the sacrificing of animals before the idols of Ca'Li'*, has superseded the less sanguinary practice of the Yajnya; and the adoration of Ra'ma and of Crishn'a has succeeded to that of the elements and planets. If this opinion be well founded; it follows, that the Upanishads in question have probably been composed in later times, since the introduction of those sects, which hold Rama and Go'Pa'La in peculiar veneration.

On the same ground, every Upanistad, which strongly savours the doctrines of these sects, may be rejected, as liable to much suspicion. Such is the A'smábód'ba Upanistad, † in which Crisuna is noticed by the title of Mad'hu-su'dana son of Devaci': and such, also, is the Sundaritapani, † which inculcates the worship of Devi.

The remaining Upanishads do not, so far as I have examined them, exhibit any internal evidence of a modern date. I state them as liable to doubt, merely because I am not acquainted with any external evidence of

In Bengal and the contiguous provinces, thousands of kids and buffalo calves are facrificed before the idol, at every celebrated temple: and opulent persons make a similar destruction of animals, at their private chapels. The sect, which has adopted this system, is prevalent in Bengal, and in many other provinces of India: and the Sanguinary Chapter, translated from the Cálicá Purána by a member of this society (Asiatick Researches, Vol. V. p. 371), is one among the authorities, on which it relies. But the practice is not approved by other sects of Hindus.

[†] I have feen but one copy of it, in an imperfect collection of the Upanifbadi. It is not inferted in other compilations, which nevertheless purport to be complete.

[‡] According to the only copy, that I have seen, it comprises five Upanishads, and belongs to the Aibar-vana; but the style resembles that of the Tantras, more than the Védas. It is followed by another tract marked as belonging to the same Véda, and entitled Tripura Upanishad, or Traipuriya; but this differs from another bearing the similar title of Tripuri Upanishad, and found in a different collection of theological treatises. I equally discredit both of them, although they are cited by writers on the Mantra-sautra (or use of incantations); and although a commentary has been written on the Tripura by BHAT'TA BHASCARA.

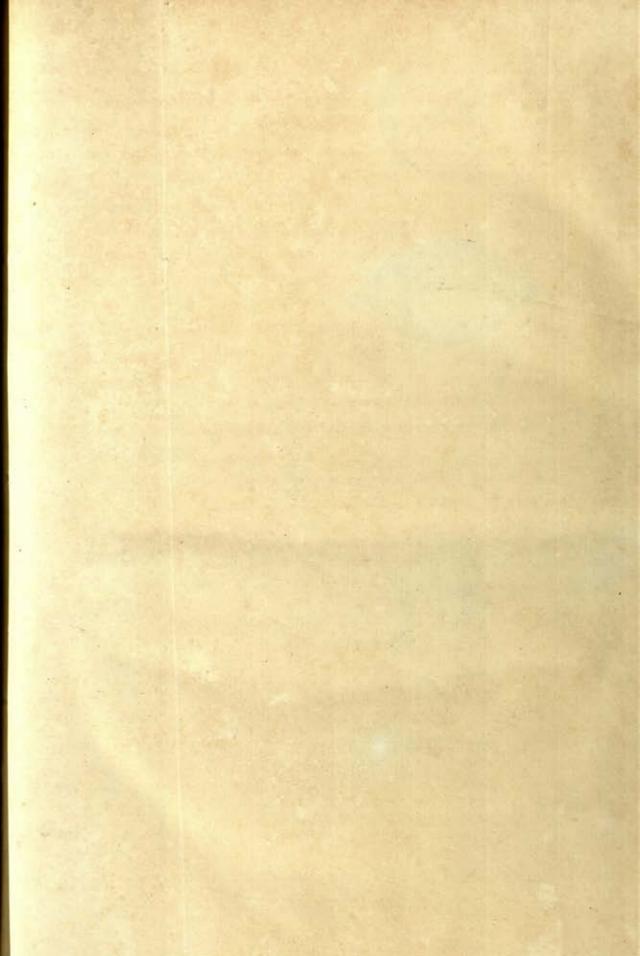
their genuineness *. But it is probable, that further researches may afcertain the accuracy of most of them, as extracts from the Védas; and their authenticity, as works quoted by known authors. In point of doctrine, they appear to conform with the genuine Upanishads.

The preceding description may serve to convey some notion of the Védas. They are too voluminous for a complete translation of the whole: and what they contain, would hardly reward the labour of the reader; much less, that of the translator. The ancient dialect, in which they are composed, and especially that of the three first Védas, is extremely difficult and obscure: and, though curious, as the parent of a more polished and refined language (the classical Sanscrit), its difficulties must long continue to prevent such an examination of the whole Védas, as would be requisite for extracting all that is remarkable and important in those voluminous works. But they well deserve to be occasionally confulted by the oriental scholar.

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The same observation is applicable to several Upanishads, which are not inserted in the best collections, but which occur in others. For instance, the Scanda, Canla, Goptebandana, Dariana and Vajrasuchi, shall not stop to indicate a sew questionable passages, in some of these dubious tracts,





A BOTANICAL and ECONOMICAL ACCOUNT of BASSIA BUTYRACEA, OF EAST INDIA BUTTER TREE.

By W. ROXBURGH, M. D.

BASSIA BUTYRACEA. POLTANDRIA MONOGYNTA.

GENERIC CHARACTER.

TALYX beneath, four or five leaved. Corol, one petaled: Border about eight cleft. Berry superior, with from one to five Seeds.

Baffia Butyracea. ROXBURGH.

CALYX five leaved; Stamens thirty or forty, crowning the subcylindric tube of the Corol.

Fulwah, Phulwarab, or Phulwara, of the inhabitants of the Almorah hills, where the tree is indigenous. Flowering time, in its native foil, the month of January; Seeds ripe in August.

TRUNK of the larger trees, straight, and about five, or fix feet in circumference. Bark of the young branches fmooth, brown, and marked with fmall, ash coloured specks.

LEAVES alternate, about the ends of the branchlets, petioled, obovatecuneate, obtuse-pointed, entire; smooth above, villous underneath; veins simple, and parallel; length, fix to twelve inches; breadth, three to fix.

PETIOLES, from one to two inches long.

STIPULES, if any, minute, and caducous.

FLOWERS numerous, round the base of the young shoots, and from the axils of the lower leaves, peduncled, large, pale-yellow, drooping.

CALYX, four, five, or fix leaved (five is by far the most common number;) ovate, obtuse, covered externally with ferruginous pubescence, permanent.

COROL; tube subcylindric, length of the Calyx; border of eight, spreading, oblong, obtuse divisions, longer than the tube.

STAMENS; filaments from thirty to forty, about as long as the tube of the Corol, and inferted on its mouth. Anthers linear-oblong.

PISTIL, germ conical, (ten or twelve celled, one feeded) downy, furrounded with a downy nectarial ring. Style longer than the stamens; stigma acute.

BERRY oblong, generally pointed by a remaining portion of the style; smooth, sleshy, containing one, two, or three, rarely more, large seeds; the rest not ripened.

SEEDS oblong, rather round than flat, but differing in shape according to the number contained in each fruit; smooth, shining, light brown, with a long, lanceolate, lighter coloured, less smooth, umbilical mark on the inside.

This tree, which is rendered interesting on account of its seeds yielding a firm butyraceous substance, resembles Bassa Latisolia, (see Coromandel Plants, Volume I, No. 19, also Asiatick Researches, Volume I, Page 300,) so much as scarce to be distinguished from it, except by the Corol, and Stamina.

HERE (in Bassia butyracea) the Corol is of a thin texture, with a tube

nearly cylindric, and border of eight, large, spreading, oblong segments. There (in Bassia latisolia) it is thick and sleshy, with a gibbous, indeed almost globular tube; and border of generally more than eight, small, cordate, rather incurved segments.

HERE, the Stamina, from thirty to forty in number, have long filaments inferted on the mouth of the tube of the Corol. There they are fewer in number; have very short filaments, and are arranged in two, or three series, completely within the tube, to which they are affixed.

It may not be improper to notice here some other species of the same genus. The following Botanical description of Bassia longisolia. LINN. Mant. page 563, I have been savored with by Doctor Klein of Tranquebar, and the account of its economical uses by the Reverend Doctor John, of the same place.

DESCRIPTION by Doctor KLEIN.

CALYX, Perianth: monophyllum, 4-partitum; laciniis ovatis, acutis, coriaceis, extus tomento ferrugineo obductis, perfistentibus.

COROLLA monophylla, campanulata; tubo cylindraceo, inflato, carnofo, limbo 8-partito; laciniis lanceolatis, erectis.

STAMINA, filamenta 16, brevissima, in duos ordines divisa, quorum ceto ad incisuras laciniarum, octo in tubo corollæ inserta. Antheræ lineares, setaceæ, acutæ, extus piloæ, limbo breviores.

PISTILL: Germen superum, ovatum. Stylus setaceus, corolla duplolongior. Stigma simplex.

Pericare: drupa oblonga, 1-3 sperma, carnosa, lactescens. Semi-

ARB R magna; ramis sparsis, erectis, horizontalibusque.

FLORES longe-pedunculati, axillares, solitarii, et aggregati.

ECONOMICAL USES OF THE OIL, OR ILLEEPEI TREE, Baffia longifolia. By the Reverend Doctor John.

- Ist. THE oil, pressed from the ripe fruit, is used as a common lamp oil, by those who cannot afford to buy the oil of the coco-nut. It is thicker, burns longer, but dimmer, smoaks a little, and gives some disagreeable smell.
- 2d. It is a principal ingredient in making the country foap, and therefore, often bears the same price with the oil of the coco-nut.
- 3d. It is, to the common people, a fubstitute for ghee, and coco-nut oil, in their curries and other dishes. They make cakes of it, and many of the poor get their liveliheod by selling these sweet oil cakes.
 - 4th. IT is used to heal different eruptions, such as the itch, &c.
- 5th. The cake (or Sakey) is used for washing the head; and is carried, as a petty article of trade, to those countries, where these trees are not found.
- 6th. THE flowers, which fall in May, are gathered by the common people, dried in the sun, roasted, and eaten, as good food. They are also bruised, and boiled to a jelly, and made into small balls, which they sell, or exchange, for sish, rice, and various sorts of small grain.
- 7th. The ripe fruit, as well as the unripe, is eaten by the poor, as other fruits. Of the unripe, the skin is taken off, and after throwing away the unripe kernel, boiled to a jelly, and eaten with falt and Capsicum.
- 8th. The leaves are boiled with water, and given as a medicine, in feveral diseases, both to men, and to cattle.
- 9th. The milk of the green fruit, and of the tender bark, is also administered as a medicine.

10th. THE bark is used as a remedy for the itch.

11th. The wood is as hard, and durable, as teak wood, but not fo easily wrought, nor is it procurable of such a length for beams, and planks, as the former; except in clay ground, where the tree grows to a considerable height; but, in such a soil, it produces fewer branches, and is less fruitful, than in a sandy, or mixed soil, which is the best suited for it. In a sandy soil, the branches shoot out nearer to the ground, and to a greater circumference, and yield more fruit. These trees require but little attention; beyond watering them during the first two or three years, in the dry season. Being of so great use, we have here whole groves of them, on high, and sandy grounds, where no other fruit trees will grow.

12th. We may add, that the owls, fquirrels, lizards, dogs and jackals, take a fluite of the flowers; but the vulgar belief is, that the latter, especially to the time of blossom, are apt to grow mad, by too much feeding on them.

Baffia obovata, Forster's Prod. No. 200: a native of the Isle of Tanna, in the fouth Sea. Of this species, I possess no other account than the definition, which corresponds with the habit of the genus. If Forster has left us no account of the uses of the tree, it may be worth while to make inquiry, when an opportunity offers.

PARK's Shea, or butter tree of Africa, we have reason, from his defeription, and figure, as well as from analogy, to suppose a species of this same genus. At page 352 (of his travels in the interior of Africa) he says, "The appearance of the fruit evidently places the Shea tree in the natural order of Sapota, (to which Bassia belongs,) and it has some resemblance to the Madbuca tree (Bassia latisolia,) described by Lieutenant Charles Hamilton, in the Asiatick Researches, Volume I, page 300.

" THE people were every where employed in collecting the fruit of the Shea trees, from which they prepare a vegetable butter, mentioned in the former part of this work. * These trees grow in great abundance all over this part of Bambarra. They are not planted by the natives, but are found growing naturally in the woods; and in clearing woodland for cultivation, every tree is cut down but the Shea. The tree itself, very much resembles the American oak, and the fruit, from the kernel of which, first dried in the sun, the butter is prepared, by boiling the kernel in water, has fomewhat the appearance of a Spanish olive. The kernel is enveloped in a fweet pulp, under a thin green rind; and the butter produced from it, besides the advantage of its keeping the, whole year without falt, is whiter, firmer, and to my palate, of a richer flavour, than the best butter I ever tasted made of cows milk. The growth and preparation of this commodity, feem to be amongst the first objects of African industry, in this and the neighbouring states; and it constitutes a main article of their inland commerce." PARK's travels in Africa, page 202-3.

In the following account of the Bassa Butyracea, by Mr. Gott, we find the people of Almorab cat the dregs, left after the finer parts have been extracted; consequently there can be little doubt of the whole-someness of the pure vegetable butter itself. The thick oil of Bassa latifolia, and longifolia, the natives of various parts of India, either use alone, or mixed with ghee (clarified butter), in their diet.

This commodity, Shea toulou, which literally translated, figuifies Tree-hutter, is extracted, by means of boiling water, from the kernel of the nut, has the confidence and appearance of butter; and is in truth an admirable substitute for it. It forms an important article in the food of the nativer, and serves also for every domestic purpose in which oil would otherwise be used. The demand for it is therefore great. Park's Travels in Africa. Page 26.

ON Captain HARDWICKE's departure for England, in the beginning of 1803, he gave me a small quantity of the above mentioned substance, observing, that the only account he could give me of it was, that it was reported to him to be a vegetable product from Almorah, or its neighbourhood, where it is called Fulwah, or Phulwarah. In consequence of this information, I applied to Mr. Gott, (who is stationed in the vicinity of that country,) to make the necessary inquiries; and from him I procured an abundance of well preserved specimens, at various times, in leaf, slower and fruit. From these, and that gentleman's account of the tree, and its product, the foregoing description, and the annexed sigures, were taken.

THE same sample, which I got from Captain HARDWICKE, in January 1803, I have still by me. It remains perfectly sweet, both in taste, and smell. Its slavour is that of cloves; having, I presume, been persumed with that spice, previously to its falling into his hands, a practice mentioned in the following narrative. At this instant the thermometer is at ninety-sive, and for these six weeks, it has rarely been below ninety, and has often risen to one hundred, or more, yet it continues about as firm as butter is in England during winter.

MR. Gott's account of the tree, and its product, is as follows:

THE tree producing a fat-like substance, known in this country by the name of Phulwah, is a native of the Almorah hills, and known there by the same name. The tree is scarce, grows on a strong soil, on the declivities of the southern aspects of the hills below Almorah, generally attaining the height, when sull grown, of sifty seet, with a circumference of six. The bark, of such specimens as I have been able

and the feed is perfect about August, at which time the natives collect them, for the purpose of extracting the above substance. On opening the shell of the feed or nut, which is of a fine chesnut colour, smooth, and brittle; the kernel appears of the fize and shape of a blanched almond: the kernels are bruised, on a smooth stone, to the consistency of cream, or of a fine pulpy matter; which is then put into a cloth bage with a moderate weight laid on, and less to stand, till the oil, or fat, is expressed, which becomes immediately of the consistency of bog's lard, and is of a delicate white colour. Its uses are in medicine; being highly esteemed in rheumatism, and contractions of the limbs. It is also much esteemed, and used by natives of rank, as an unction, for which purpose, it is generally mixed with an User of some kind. Except the fruit, which is not much esteemed, no other part of the tree is used.

This tree is supposed to bear a strong affinity to the Mawa, (Madhuca, or Basha latisolia;) but the oil or sat, extracted from the seeds, differs very materially. The oil from the Mawa, is of a greenish-yellow colour, and seldom congeals. That from the Phulwah congeals, immediately after expression, is perfectly colourless; and, in the hottest weather, is melted by art, will, on being left to cool, resume its former consistency. The oil from the seed of the Mawa, if rubbed on woollen cloth, leaves as strong a stain as other oils or animal sat. The satty substance from the Phulwah, if pure, being rubbed on woollen cloth, will leave no trace behind.

forth, he dispose is that of cloves a baylon.

THE oil of Mawa is expressed in considerable quantities, about Carripoor, and Furruckabad, and being mixed with, is sold as ghee.

This fatty substance very rarely comes pure from the hills, and re-

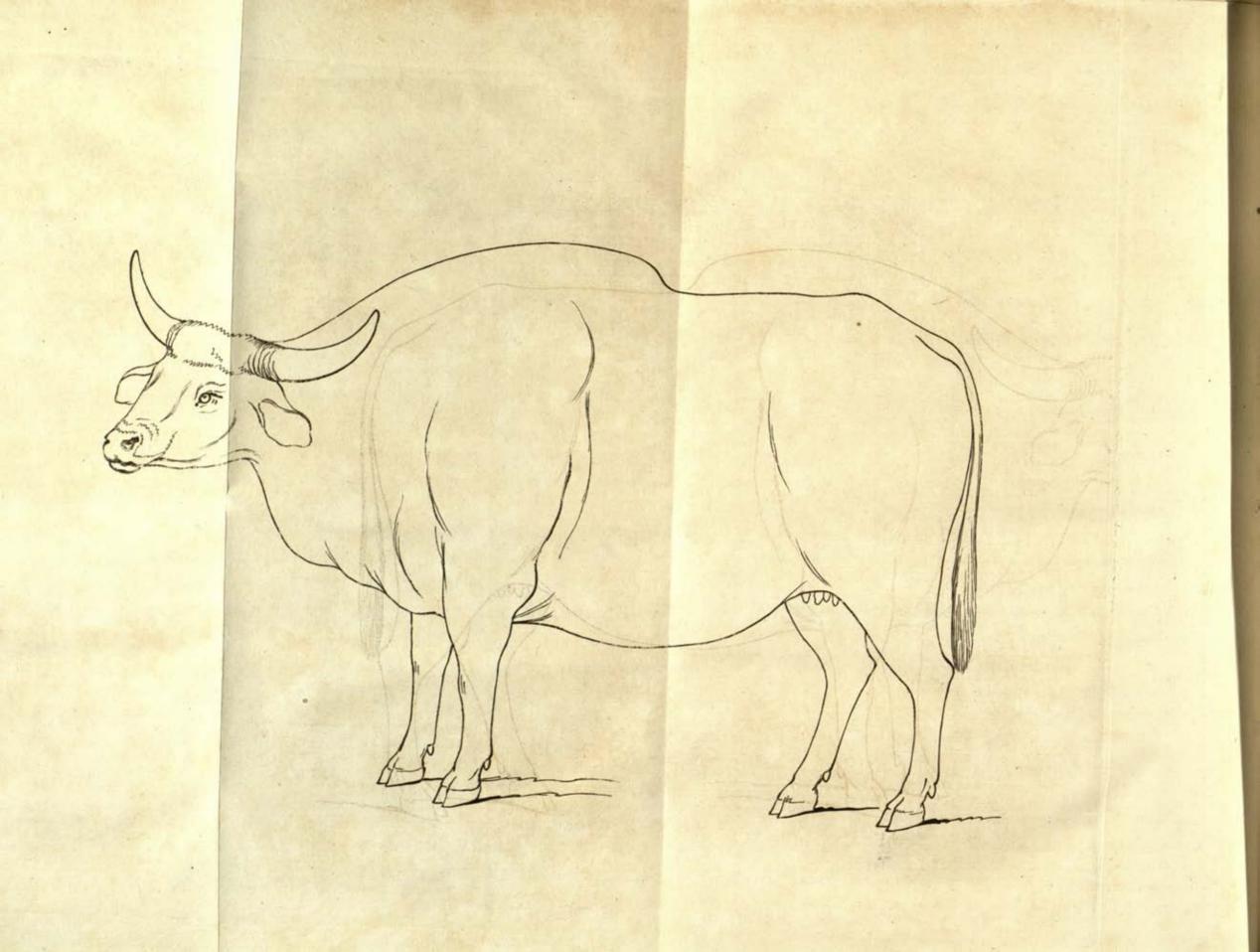
passes down to the lower provinces: age gives it the firmnels of pure tallow.

ADDITIONAL REMARKS BY THE SAME, IN CONSEQUENCE OF A

It is imposted there might be annually procured from twenty to thirty mounds, at the price of fourteen or fifteen rupees the maund.

- Ift. IT is never taken inwardly as a medicine, nor is it used in diet; further than that the dregs, after the purer fatty substance is expressed, are eaten, as a substitute for ghee, by the peasants, or labourers, who extract the fat.
- 2d. I HAVE some pure, which has been by me ten months, and it has neither acquired colour, nor bad smell.
- 3d. AFTER it is imported into Robilkhund, it is scented with Utr, (an essential oil,) and a little of the flour of the Indian corn (Zea Mays) is added, to increase its consistency. N. B. This flour is added on account of its peculiar whiteness.
- 4th. If it is clean, and free from dirt, it never undergoes any purification; if on the contrary, it is heated, and filtered through a coarse cloth.
- 5th. The flowers are never used. The pulp of the fruit is eaten by some; it is of a sweet, and flat taste.

THE timber is white, foft, and porous; and is never made any use of by the natives. It is nearly as light as the Semul, or cotton tree (Bomban beptapbyllum.)



DESCRIPTION OF A SPECIES OF OX NAMED GAYAL. COMMUNICATED BY H. T. COLEBROOKE, Esq.

HE Gayal was mentioned in an early volume of the refearches of the Afiatick Society, by its Indian name, which was explained by the phrase ' cattle of the mountains.' It had been obscurely noticed (if indeed the same species of ox be meant,) by KNOX, in his historical relation of Ceylon; and it has been imperfectly described by Captain TURNER, in his journey through Bootan. + Herds of this species of cattle have been long possessed by many gentlemen, in the eastern districts of Bengal, and also in other parts of this province: but no detailed account of the animal and of its habits, has been yet published in India. To remedy this deficiency, Dr. ROXBURGH undertook, at my folicitation, to describe the Gayal from those seen by him in a herd belonging to the Governor General. Dr. BUCHANAN has also obligingly communicated his observations on the same cattle: and both descriptions are here laid. before the fociety; with information obtained from feveral gentlemen at Tipura, Silbet, and Chatgaon, relative to the habits of the animal. The original drawing, from which the plate has been taken, is in the collection of Sir John Anstruther; for whom it was drawn by a native artist in his fervice.

[.] In the second volume (p. 183.) published in 1790.

Embiffy to Tibet, p. 160.

From the information, which was first received, it was supposed that the Gayál would not engender either with the buffalo, or with the common bull and cow, and must therefore constitute a distinct species in every system of classification. Although that be not confirmed, by the correcter information now obtained; yet, on account of the considerable and apparently permanent difference between the common cow and the Gayál, this ought still perhaps to be considered as a distinct species, rather than as a variety. Its generick and trivial names, with the synonyma, may be stated as follows.

BOS GAV ÆUS.

Malitan Saw Shariw when a series of the

SYNONYMA: Sansc. Gavaya; Hind. Gavai, or Gayal; Beng. Gobaygoru; Pers. Gaujangali; mountaineers (Cucis &c.) east of Silhet, Méthana;
mountaineers (Cucis) east of Chatgaon, Shial; Mugs, Jhongnua. Burmas,
Núnec. Ceylon, Gauvera.*

Bos Bubalus Gauvera : PENNANT.+

seen upforgetty matter need

THE Gayal, fays Dr. Roxburgh, is nearly of the fize and shape of the English bull. It has short horns, which are distant at their bases, and rise in a gentle curve directly out and up: a transverse section, near the base, is ovate; the thick end of the section being on the inside. The front is broad, and crowned with a tust of lighter coloured, long, curved hair. The dewlap is deep and pendent. It has no mane, nor hump; but a considerable elevation over the withers. The tail is short; the body covered with a tolerable coat of straight, dark-brown, hair: on the belly, it is lighter coloured; and the legs and face are sometimes white.

^{*} Knox's historical relation of Ceylon, p. 21.

⁺ History of Quadrupeds I. p. 27.

DOCTOR BUCHANAN thus describes it :

THE Gayal generally carries its head with the mouth projecting forward like that of a buffalo. The head at the upper part is very broad and flat, and is contracted fuddenly towards the nose, which is naked like that of the common cow. From the upper angles of the forehead proceed two thick, short, horizontal processes of bone which are covered with hair. On these are placed the horns, which are smooth, shorter than the head, and lie nearly in the plane of the forehead. They diverge outward, and turn up with a gentle curve. At the base they are very thick, and are slightly compressed, the flat sides being toward the front and the tail. The edge next the ear is rather the thinness, the horns are rounded and end in a sharp point. The eyes resemble those of the common ox; the ears are much longer, broader and blunter than those of that animal.

THE neck is very flender near the head, at some distance from which a dewlap commences; but this is not so deep, nor so much undulated, as in the Bos Zebu or Indian ox. The dewlap is covered with strong longish hair so as to form a kind of mane on the lower part of the neck; but this is not very conspicuous, especially when the animal is young.

A In place of the hump, which is fituated between the shoulders of the Zebu, the Gayál has a sharp ridge, which commences on the hinder part of the neck, slopes gradually up till it comes over the shoulder joint, then runs horizontally almost a third part of the length of the back, where it terminates with a very sudden slope. The height of this ridge

makes the neck appear much depressed and also adds greatly to the clumsiness of the chest, which, although narrow, is very deep. The sternum is covered by a continuation of the dewlap. The belly is protuberant, but in its hinder part is greatly contracted. The rump or os facrum has a more considerable declivity, than that of the European ox; but less than that of the Zebu.

THE tail is covered with short hair, except near the end where it has a tust like that of the common ox; but, in the Gayal, the tail descends no lower than the extremity of the tibia.

An are one languaged their thank to be soon in the fall

- THE legs, especially the fore ones, are thick and clumsy. The salse hoofs are much larger than those of the Zebu. The hinder parts are weaker in proportion than the forehand; and, owing to the contraction of the belly, the hinder legs, although in sact the shortest, appear to be the longest.
- THE whole body is covered with a thick coat of short hair, which is lengthened out into a mane on the dewlap and into a pencil-like tust on the end of the tail. From the summit of the head there diverges, with a whirl, a bunch of rather long coarse hair, which lies stat, is usually lighter coloured than that which is adjacent, and extends towards the horns and over the forehead. The general colour of the animal is brown in various shades, which very often approaches to black, but sometimes is rather light. Some parts, especially about the legs and belly, are usually white; but, in different individuals, these are very differently disposed.

that to dismai and to many burden nothing all amounts of that used

In the first column of the following table is the measurement of a full grown cow; in the second is that of a young male.

		Feet, Inches.	Feet. Inches.
From the nose to the summit of the head,	-	1 6	1 8
Distance between the roots of the horns,	-	0 10	0 9
From the horns to the shoulder, -	-	3 3	3 0
From the shoulder to the insertion of the tail,	-	4 3	3 10
Height at the shoulder,	-	4 9	4 7
Height at the loins,	16.90	4 4	4 2
Depth of the cheft,		2 9	
Circumference of the cheft,		6 7	5 7
Circumference at the loins, -	-	5 10	5 6
Length of the horns,	a loss	I 2	T. C
Length of the ears.		0 10	1 5 5

* The different species of the ox kind may be readily distinguished from the Gayál by the following marks. The European and Indian oxen by the length of their tails, which reach to the false hoofs; the American ox by the gibbosity on its back; the Boves moschatus, Caser, and pumilus, by having their horns approximated at the bases; the Bos grunniens by its whole tail being covered with long silky hairs; the Bos Bubalus, at least the Indian bussalo, by having the whole length of its horns compressed, and by their being longer than the head and wrinkled; also by its thin coat of hair, by its want of a dewlap, and above all by its manners; the Bos barbatus by the long beard on its chin.

THE cry of the Gayal has no refemblance to the grunt of the Indian ox: but a good deal resembles that of the buffalo. It is a kind of low-

ing, but shriller, and not near so loud as that of the European ox. To this however, the Gayal approaches much nearer, than it does to the buffalo.'

THE result of inquiries made by Mr. MACRAE at Chatgaon, has been communicated by that gentleman in the following answer to questions which were transmitted to him.

- 'THE Gayal is found wild in the range of mountains that form the eastern boundary of the provinces of Aracan, Chittagong (Chatgaon,). Tipura, and Silbet.
- THE Cúcis or Luncias, a race of people inhabiting the hills immediately to the eastward of Chatgaon, have herds of the Gayal in a domesticated state. By them he is called Shial; from which, most probably, his name of Gayal is derived: as he is never seen on the plains, except when brought there. By the Mugs he is named J'hongnuah; and, by the Burmas, Núnec. In the Hindu śasta he is called Gabay. It appears, however, that he is an animal very little known beyond the limits of his native mountains; except to the inhabitants of the provinces abovementioned.
- THE Gayál is of a dull heavy appearance; but, at the same time, of a form, which indicates much strength and activity, like that of the wild buffalo. His colour is invariably brown; but of different shades, from a light to a dark tinge; and he frequently has a white forehead, and four white legs, with the tip of the tail also white. He has a full eye, and, as he advances in age, often becomes blind; but it is uncertain, whether

from disease, or from a natural decay. His disposition is gentle; even when wild, in his native hills he is not considered to be a dangerous animal, never standing the approach of man, much less bearing his attack. The Cúcis hunt the wild ones for the sake of their sless.

- THE Gayal delights to range about in the thickest forest, where he browses, evening and morning, on the tender shoots and leaves of different shrubs; seldom feeding on grass, when he can get these. To avoid the noonday heat, he retires to the deepest shade of the forest; preferring the dry acclivity of the hill, to repose on, rather than the low swampy ground below; and never, like the buffalo, wallowing in mud.
- * Gayáls have been domesticated among the Cúcis from time immemorial; and without any variation, in their appearance, from the wild stock. No difference whatever is observed in the colour of the wild and tame breeds: brown of different shades being the general colour of both. The wild Gayál is about the size of the wild buffalo of India. The tame Gayál, among the Cúcis, being bred in nearly the same habits of freedom, and on the same food, without ever undergoing any labour, grows to the same size with the wild one.
- 'He lives to the age of fifteen, or twenty, years: and, when three years old, the Gayal cow receives the bull; goes eleven months with young; and will not again admit his embrace, until the following feafor after she has brought forth.
- * THE Gral cow gives very little milk, and does not yield it long; but what she gives, is of a remarkably rich quality; almost equally so, with

the cream of other milk, and which it also resembles in colour. The Cúcis make no use whatever of the milk, but rear the Gayáls entirely for the sake of their slesh and skins. They make their shields of the hides of this animal. The slesh of the Gayál is in the highest estimation among the Cúcis; so much so, that no solemn-festival is ever celebrated without slaughtering one or more Gayáls, according to the importance of the occasion.

'THE Cúcis train their Gayáls to no labour; although, from the great strength and gentle disposition of the animal, he must be very competent to every purpose, either of draught, or carriage, to which the buffalo, or the ox, is applicable.

7.

- The domesticated Gayáls are allowed by the Cúcis to roam at large, during the day, through the forest, in the neighbourhood of the village: but, as evening approaches, they all return home, of their own accord; the young Gayál being early taught this habit, by being regularly sed every night with salt, of which he is very fond: and, from the occasional continuance of this practice, as he grows up, the attachment of the Gayál, to his native village, becomes so strong, that, when the Cúcis migrate from it, they are obliged to set fire to the huts, which they are about to leave, lest their Gayáls should return thither from their new place of residence, before they become equally attached to it, as to the former, through the same means.
- THE wild Gayál sometimes steals out from the forest in the night, and feeds in the rice fields bordering on the hills. The Cacis give no grain to their cattle. With us, the tame Gayáls feed on Calái

(phaseolus max); but, as our hills abound with shrubs, it has not been remarked, what particular kind of grass they prefer.

hold in equal veneration with the cow. But the Asl Gayál, or Seloi, they hunt, and kill, as they do the wild buffalo. The animal, here alluded to, is another species of Gayál found wild in the hills of Chatgaon; a córrect description of which will be given hereaster. He has never been domesticated; and is, in appearance and disposition, very different from the common Gayál, which has been just described. The natives call him the Asl Gayál in contradistinction to the Gabay. The Cúcis distinguish him by the name of Seloi, and the Mugs and Burmas by that of P'banj; and they consider him, next to the tiger, the most dangerous and the siercest animal of their forests.

* THE Gayál (Mr. ELIOT writes from Tipura,) is little known to the natives here; it is principally confidered as an inhabitant of the Chatgaon hills. In conversation with people belonging to the Raja of Tipura, on the subject of this animal, I have understood, that it is known in the recesses of the more eastern part of the Tipura hills, but has never been caught. In the past year, some of these animals were seen in a herd of elephants, and continued some time with the herd: but they were alarmed by the noise used in driving the elephants, and escaped being secured in the senced enclosure. The K'héda of that season was nearly sive hours journey from the skirts of the hills.

^{&#}x27;THE animal is found wild, but is eafily domesticated, though, in this state, he essentially partakes of wild habits. I have some Gayals at Munnamutty; and, from their mode of feeding, I presume, that they

keep on the fixirts of the vallies, to enable them to feed on the fides of the mountain, where they can brouse. They will not touch grass, if they can find shrubs.

WHILE kept at Camerlab, which is situated in a level country, they used to resort to the tanks, and eat on the sides; frequently betaking themselves to the water, to avoid the heat of the sun. However, they became sickly, and emaciated; and their eyes suffered much. But, on being sent to the hills, they soon recovered, and are now in a healthy condition. They seem fond of the shade; and are observed in the hot weather to take the turn of the hills, so as to be always sheltered from the sun. They do not wallow in mud like buffaloes; but delight in water, and stand in it, during the greatest heat of the day, with the front of their heads above the surface,

* Each cow yields from two and a half, to about four sers, of milk *, which is rich, fweet, and almost as thick as cream; it is of high flavour, and makes excellent butter.'

INFORMATION, decisive of the question, whether the Gayál engender with the common Indian bull, has been received from Mr. BIRD, at Dacca; who 'having brought a domesticated female Gayál from Chit-

- ' tagong to that place, and not being able to procure a male Gayal at
- * Dacca, directed a common bull t to be presented to her, which the
- female received, upon being blinded by a cloth thrown over her eyes:
- ". the iffue was a cow resembling mostly the Gayas mother; and from
- that cow, impregnated by a bull of the same common breed, another

ow on started to be firsten

[·] From five to eight pounds.

⁴ Of the breed named Difwali. It is a Zebu of the common kind found in the middle diffricts of Bengal.

- cow was produced, which also had grown up and was in calf by a common bull, at the date of Mr. Bird's letter.'
 - Mr. Dick communicated the following answer from Silber.
- Nor being able to procure, here, any fatisfactory information refpecting the Gayal, I transmitted questions to my Vakil at Cach'bar (having understood, that those animals had been sent hither, from that
 place), and defired him, to obtain the most correct information on the
 subject.
- "WITH regard to the Hindus ferupling to kill a Gayál, I could not obtain a direct answer: as the word "Gó" is affixed to one of the names, from which they inser, that it partakes of the cow, and are asraid positively to declare, that it is not improper to kill the animal; quoting a passage from the Sástra, "Gósadrisab Gavayab," a Gavaya is like an ox. However, the Rájá of Cách'hár, who is a Csbatriya of the Súryabansi race, occasionally sends several Gayáls to be sacrificed on certain hills in his country, in order to conciliate the Dévatá of the place; as his Vakíl informs me."

THE answers received from the Vakit at Cacb'har, to the questions forwarded by Mr. DICK, contain the following information.

- · THE Gayal is called Gaujangali in the Persian language, Gavaya in Sanscrit, and Méi'hana by the mountaineers: but others name the animal Gobay-goru.
- GAYA'LS are not confined to the woods: they are domesticated. But wild Gayals are found in the mountains of Bhotant, &c. They are kept, in a tame state, by the people who inhabit the Calanaga hills, near the

district of Cb'hilber (Silbet), on the eastern border of the province of Cách'bár, west of Manipur, and north of a tract dependant on Tripura-Cálánágás, Cúcis, and Khásis (tribes of mountaineers), keep Gayáls for the sake of the flesh, not for the milk, which they do not use; nor for burden, fince they have no fuch employment for their cattle.

THE Gayal lives to the age of twenty, or twenty-five, years: it has reached its full growth, at five years; and the female is generally higher than the male. She receives the bull, in her fifth year, and bears after ten months. If milked she yields from two, to two and half, fers of milk,* or fometimes more.

. The tame Gayals, however long they may have been domesticated, do not at all differ from the wild: unless in temper; for the wild are fierce and untractable. The colour of both is the same; namely, that of the antilope; but fome are white, and others black: none are fpotted, nor piebald. They graze and range like other cattle; and eat rice, mustard, chiches, and any cultivated produce; as also, chaff and chopped straw.

"THE Gavaya is like a cow;" consequently, not the same with a cow: a Hindu, therefore, commits no offence by killing one. But natives of Bengal or of the mountains, who are Hindus, scruple to kill a Gayal themselves, because it is named Gobay-goru (or the Gavaya cow).

To this answer, an addition was made by the Raja's Vakil, at Silbet.

" Mét'banás are facrificed, especially by Nágás and Cúcis, before the mountain gods, Nahbaram and Mairam. The Cucis and Nagas are

[.] From four to five pound .

fend of the meat; and, therefore, constantly keep such cattle, and eat their slesh; and often make presents of them to the Rájá of Cách'bár. The Rájá preserves them, and sometimes offers Mét'banás in sacrifices to deities; or entertains, with their slesh, Nágás and Cúcis, who come to visit him. The mountaineers are much pleased with that compliment, and eat the meat with delight.'

This information has established (what I had previously conjectured), that the animal mentioned by many Sanscrit authors, under the name of Gavaya, is no other than the Gayál. Amera Sinha, in a chapter of his dictionary relating to animals, mentions the Gavaya with many wild animals; among which are the black antilope, the spotted axis, the porcine deer, the painted or white sooted antilope, the grunting ox, and the musk deer. One of his commentators (Raya-mucuta) says of the Gavaya, that, in shape, it resembles the ox. He had previously compared the form of the grunting ox (Bos Grunniens,) to that of a buffalo. Another annotator states Gavaya, as a name received into the common dialects. Both agree in deriving the word, from Gó, a bull or cow, and aya knowledge; because, as they remark, one might take it for an ox.

THE Rája-nighanti, an excellent catalogue of natural productions, with their reputed qualities in the Materia Medica, states Gavaya as synonymous with Vana-gó or wild ox; also called in Sanserit, Balabhadra and Māhágava; and, in the vulgar dialect, Gavai. Another vocabulary has added Gavánúca to the Sanserit synonyma; and, according to the Rája-nighanti, the semale is likewise named Bhillagavi, or cow of the Bhillas (a tribe of pillagers and mountaineers).

No further evidence would feem necessary, had not the Bhavapracafa,

a celebrated medical work, confounded the Gavaya with the Risya or Risbya, (in Hindi, Rojb), which is the painted or white-footed antilope, called Nilgau. MADANAPALA, in a similar catalogue of animals confidered relatively to their medical uses, has fallen into the same error; and so, probably, other writers may have done, who inhabit countries where the Gayal is little known.

To correct this mistake, (without relying on the separate mention of the two animals in the Ameracosha,) I shall cite no less an authority, than the Indian scripture. The twenty-sourth chapter of the Vajasanéyì Vajurvéda, enumerates the animals, which should be consecrated to various deities, at an. Aswaméd'ba. At is there directed (v. 27), that three Risyas (white sooted Antilopes) shall be consecrated to the deities named Vasus; and, towards the close of the next verse (v. 28), it is required, that three buffaloes shall be presented to Varun'a, as many Gavayas to Vrihaspati, and the same number of camels to Twasht'ri. The commentator on the Vêda, (Mahi'd'hara,) explains Gavaya, as signifying, 'wild cattle resembling kine.' It is evident, that this suits better with the Gayal, than with any other animal known in India.

FROM the authorities above quoted, the Sanscrit synonyma may be safely concluded. But it is not so easy to determine a Persian name of this species of ox. Gaujangali, or cow of the forest, mentioned by Mr. Dick's Vakil at Cách'bár, is a suitable designation; but it does not occur, so far as I can learn, in any Persian work of authority. It may be necessary to caution the reader, not to suppose the Persian Gauchhi (which literally signifies, as Mr. GLADWAN translated it; mountain cow,) to be this, or any other species of the ox. The Tobsatu's summinin, and Mekhzenu's.

In the Madana vinode nighanti-

adviyeb, two celebrated treatifes by Persian physicians, concur in describing the three varieties of Gaucóbi, also named Gauzen or Gózen, and in Arabick, Iyyal or Uyyal, as three forts of deer: and the last mentioned work declares it to be the same with the Hindl Barehsing'ba or Cervus Elaphus.

I TAKE this opportunity, while treating of a species of ox, to notice an error, which crept into KERR's unfinished translation of the animal kingdom in LINNÆUS'S Systema Naturæ; and which has been followed by Doctor Turton in translating the general system of nature by LINNÆUS. Mr. KERR described and figured, under the name of Bos Arnee, an animal, which, notwithstanding the exaggerated description, given on the authority of a British officer, who met with one in the woods, in the country above Bengal *,' is evidently nothing elfe, but the wild buffalo; an animal very common throughout Bengal, and known there, and in the neighbouring provinces of Hindustan, by the name of Arna. Though neither fourteen feet high as Mr. KERR has stated, or rather as the officer, on whose information he relied, had affirmed; nor even eight feet, as Doctor TURTON, following KERR's inference from a drawing, afferts; yet it is a large and very formidable animal, conspicuous for its strength, courage, and ferocity. It may not be true, that the buffaloes of Afia and Europe constitute a fingle species; but, certainly, the wild and tame buffaloes of India do not appear to differ in any thing, except the superior fize, and more uniform figure, of the wild animal. A better description of the buffalo, than has been yet given, is perhaps wanted; but the Bos Arnee of KERR and TURTON must be rejected from systems of zoology, as an erroneous description taken from a loofe drawing, affilted by the fragment of a skeleton.

^{*} KERR, page 336.

embing the three persons of County, and named Olivert of Course, control in defeathing the three persons of Course, as the named Olivert of Course, and in Street, as the first of the trade and last mentioned were defined as to be the first with the first Theoretical or Course of the Course of th

I TAKE the oppositency while practice of orderics of er, to notice in come, which aren into Mann's unfaithed tradition of the erest has shown in house, and Superior November and which has been followed on success to men't torong our printhers of Morgot weeks of A new animals, which, note the inner my the exceptions of the control of and on the someone of the distance of the state of the same of the same of would, in the country about thems, it is evidently undiring the but to miss and we will be the province of The ball by the same of Anna Manuala mai ber Percent, free high as Mr. Kare has dained, and edings are the million to a single subsymmetry be willed, that a minuted a new more really the own of what True on, inflamming Aring an inflation of a deriving which a series and way form toronically comspecies a commence of the company and decorpts. In may not be true, that the rest of refer and charge attended in the final function of the to a life of the property of the later of th After the law equal much markets the conditions of the part of the sample at heavy self-range of the hard beginning to the heavy of piges. and During storage of the state profit country, wearington the emperations country, and the first street, in the land

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APPENDIX.

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INTRODUCTORY REMARKS, intended to have accompanied Captain Mahony's Paper on Ceylon, and the doctrines of Buddha, published in the Seventh Volume of the Asiatick Researches; but inadvertently omitted in publishing that Volume.

By J. H. HARINGTON, Esq.

HAVE the pleasure of laying before the Society a paper on the Island of Ceylon, and on the religious opinions of the greater part of its inhabitants, the worshippers of BOODH or BUDDHA, whose religion and philosophy appeared to Sir W. Jones, "connected with some of the most curious parts of Asiatick history," * and the period of his appearance an important epoch in Hindoo Chronology. †

This paper, which has been procured by the Honorable Mr. Doncan, from Captain Mahony, an officer of the Bombay establishment, for sometime resident on the Island of Ceylon, has, with another paper already communicated to the Society by Captain Mackenzie, anticipated and superseded some cursory remarks written by myself, during a short residence at Columbs, in the year 1797; and which I had hoped to render more worshy of perusal on receiving a translation of the Peerówáná

^{*} Spissick Researches, Volume I, page 354.

⁴ Discourse on the Hindus, Statick Researches, Volume I.

Pôtá, an antient book composed in the Páli language by Anunda' Maha' Tiru'na'shee, which was given to me by a priest of Buddha, as containing a full account of his religion; and which I lest to be translated at Columbo, by Monsieur De Hoan, with the assistance of Lewis De Sylva. But the French version made by them was unfortunately put on board the Greenwich, captured by a vessel from the lsle of France; and it has consequently never reached me. We shall not however have to regret this accident, if Captain Mahony, who has given an extract from an historical work, the Maha Raja Wallieb, or as a copy of it shewn to me was called, the Rájáwulce Puttur, shall hereaster favor the society with the communication of the authentick materials for a history of the Singalese, their religion, manners, and customs, which I understand to be in his possession.

In the mean time I beg the Society's acceptance (for their Museum) of two small images of Boodh, which I procured at Columbo; and of two others brought from the Burmah, dominions by Captain Cox, late resident at Rangoon; the identity of which proves incontestably that the object of worship on the Eastern peninfula, and the Island of Ceylin, is the same. I also beg to deposit in the Society's library the accompanying copy of the Peerówáná Pótá abovementioned, of which, at some suture period, we may hope to procure another translation, if that carried to Bourbon or Mauritius, should not find its way to Europe, and the publick.

I SHALL only add my testimony to that of Captain MAHONY, as to the period at which the Singalese compute the appearance of Gou'TAMA BUDDHA; whose death, or rather disappearance from the earth, they state to have been 2339 years before 1797 A. C. or 542 years before the birth of CHRIST; and as their sacred era is reckoned from this epoch.

actly, with the computation of the same era in Siam, as stated by Mr. Marsden, in his tract on the chronology of the Hindoos; wherein, speaking of Siam, he observes, it the civil reckoning is by lunar years, consisting ordinarily of twelve months each, with an intercalation of seven months in the period of nineteen years, and commencing with the new moon that precedes the winter solstice. This era is computed from the supposed time of the introduction of their religion by Summonacobom, 544 years before Christ; or in the year of the Julian period 4169."

dinered at comme and in the call in

THE real time at which BUDDHA, the fon of SUDHO'DUN (from whom he has the appellation Soudbo-dani, in the Amara-cofha), propagated the heterodox doctines ascribed to him by his followers, and for which they have been branded as atheifts, and perfecuted as hereticks, by the Brahmans, is however a defideratum, which the learned knowledge and indefatigable refearch, of Sir W. Jones have fill left to be fatisfactorily afcertained. His usual candour induced him to acknowledge, his original error in supposing this BUDDHA to have been the Woden of the Golbs, and genius of the planet Mercury "; and the passage from the Bbdgwatamrita, quoted in his differnation on the chronology of the Hindoos, which flates that BODDHA, (the ninth Avatat), of became vifible the thousand and fecond year of the Cah-age being past," is, I find, open to another reading which makes it the fecond thousands year, or the year 2000, instead of 1602. At least it was for interpreted to me by RADHACANT, the very Pundle who is mentioned by Sir WILLIAM Jones, as having produced to him the book, from which the passage in

Differention on the chronology of the Hindus, Afiatick Refearches, Volume II.

question is quoted, and who is now one of the Pundits of the court of Sudr Deewanee A'dalut. His interpretation was also confirmed to me by Survo' Te'waree, the other Pundit of the court; but in justice to our revered Founder, whose regard to truth L have but imitated in this remark, I must add, that Mr. BLAQUIERE, whose knowledge of the Shanserit language is too well known to need my testimony, concurs in the reading and version of Sir William Jones.

ANOTHER point yet to be ascertained, is, whether BUDDHA, the ninth Avatar of the Hindoos, be the same with the heretick BUDDHA, now worshipped at Ceylon, and in the eastern peninsula; as well as in China, Bootan, and Tibet. Sir WILLIAM JONES, in his differtation on the Gods of Greece, Italy, and India *, observes on BUDDHA, that " he seems to " have been a reformer of the doctrines contained in the Védas; and " though his good nature led him to censure these ancient books, because " they enjoined facrifices of cattle, yet he is admitted as the ninth A'vatar, " even by the Brabmens of Casi." Captain WILFORD, in his differtation on Egypt and the Nile +, after mentioning the subversion of the religion and government of DE'VA'DA'SA, the sovereign of Benares, by VISHNU, in the character of JINA, MA'HA'DE'VA in the form of ARHAN, Or MAHI-MAN, and BRAHMA' in the figure of BUDDHA, remarks, " most of the Brabmens infift that the BUDDHA, who perverted De'va'Da'sa, was not the ninth incarnation of VISHNU; whose name, some say, should be " wristen Boudha, or Boddha,; but not to mention the Amarcofh, the " Mugbdha-bodh, and the Gita-govind, in all of which, the ninth Avatar is called Buddha, it is expressly declared in the Bbagavat, that VISHNU " should appear ninthly in the form of "BUDDHA", fon of JINA, for the

[.] Afiatick Refearcher, Volume I.

⁺ Afiatick Refearches, Volume III.

" purpose of confounding the Dairyas, at a place named Cicata, when the "Cáli-age should be completely begun."

In this quotation the ninth A'vatar is called the fon of JINA; (perhaps as a descendant from JINA or as having adopted part of his doctrines;) but the present worshippers of BUDDHA state him to be the son of Su-DHODUN, and those from whom ABOOLFUZUL took his account of BOODH in the Ayeen Akburee, gave him the same information; in which they are supported by the Amara-cosha, as already noticed. The followers of BOODH, at Ceylon, although their long intercourse with the Hindoos (efpecially fince they have been governed by a Hindoo prince) has introduced fome Hindoo tenets and observances, in addition to what may have been originally derived from them, also positively deny that their BOODH is the Hindoo Avatar. The conclusion of Sir W. Jones,* that a second BUDDHA, assuming the name and character of the first, attempted to overset the system of the Brabmans, and was the cause of their persecution of the Boudbas, corresponds with, and is supported by, the information given to ABOOLFUZUL, who fays, " The Brahmans call BOODH the ninth. " A'vatar, but affert that the religion which is ascribed to him is false, " and fabricated by some other person.+"

Differtation on the chronology of the Hindus, Afiatick Refearches, Volume II.

⁺ See further his account of this religion, in the Third Volume of GLADWIN's Translation of the Ayeen Abburee, page 157.

a proposed confedentiagate Berger at a place named Object, when the

Tour is carled the fon of June 4 (perhaps In this quotation the (1 smillion ill to trap hetgers having a local translated as a that the prefett, wordingly " county date him to be the fon of Su-The out, and that hom the A Amour wat tout his account of Booms in it Aven Abours, gove him the fame information; in which they over trapouted by the demand-ration, as already noticed. The followers Booms, as Color, although their long interconfe with the Hindors' (elrevisible frace they have been governed by a Mindes prince) has introduced Lane Mindos reners and officevances, in addition to what may have been originally derived from them, also politively deny that their Booms is the Blades Averer. The conclusion of Sir W. Jouns, a that a lecond Beginning the name and character of the first, attempted to overfer the fyficia of the Brahmans, and was the cause of their perfecution of the Bondbur, corresponds with, and is topported by, the information given to Association, who fags, " The Brithman call Boosta the sinth-" A'untar, but effort that the religion wideh is afterbed to him is falle, " and labricated by fome other perforat"

Differention on the chronology of the Hodes, Africk Schools, Volume II.
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IN ANDRESS YOUR DE

ERRATA.

Page	Line	a for	mild white the fact to be the					
46	1	read a new symbol. Line 18 after nature, a full stop.						
48	15	for religion read religion. Line 3 from the bottom after total, a full stop.						
62	4	from the bottom read particle.	andfin					
85	12	after the word learn, add excep	ot in the Siva purána.					
137	9	for aparatus	read . apparatus					
aı	nd elfe	ewhere	Jan 200 - Tak					
141	19	- referving space	referving a space					
-	20	with a furface	- with the furface					
142	26	and the points of re	and the points are points of re-					
		ference	ference					
-	_	even	ever					
144	25 &	26 - every half hour	- nearly half an hour					
15		100 + 0,043263	100 + 0.043263					

In page 158, in giving the values of feconds, minutes, &c. in divisions of the micrometer, read thus:

One fecond will be equal 1,269 divisions.

One minute - - - 75,72 ditto.

Ten minutes - - - 757,2 ditto.

In page 182 line 13 for poplar read polar.

NOTE. The ratio of the earth's diameters as mentioned in the note, page 192, has been determined by using the degree as brought out here, and the one in latitude 50° 41' as deduced from the measured are between Greenwich and Paris, which is 60851 fathoms; and these two give the ratio of the polar to the equatorial diameters to be 1: 1,008567, supposing the earth to be an ellipsoid.

Page Line

196 8 for treaties read treatife 201 last line interpretation interpolation

1	Page	Lin	c	700			200
	201	1	for	fetting	read	putting	
15	204	10	5 —	Reviwer	7 -	Reviewer	
	212	3	from the bott	tom for Súyra	read	The second secon	Total - and
d	216		after e	enough	add	for	5
3	222	11	from the bot	tom, for 98053	read	91053	and a s
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2	237	8	-	1266000	in topolis	1296000	mb. At 18
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2	49			place for him.		W	
2	50		intepenult. an	id page 251, lin	ne 4 from the	bottom, read ma	nufcrints
2	52	10	read Thefe	two fections, th	he titles of	which he borrowe	d. confid as he
•			wrote th	em, of no lels	than		
2	56	6	read stauroi	bales: line 9 f	or name, real	d same: line 15/	or affected was
			effected	: line 21 for	remains, read	remain	anceted, read
2	57	1	read of then	1			
_2(52	8	for then read	than		STORY OF THE STORY	STATE OF THE PARTY
27	5	21	read HERCU	LES			ET PERMITT
27	7-	2	omit from				
27	8	9	for point reas	d points		William Co.	
28		5	read (PLUTO			County and Const	
28			for will read		and the same		Consequent ni
28		24	omit the secon	d the	Name of the last		And the same of
28	5.	9	read antedily	vian: line 10	for fet read	Tate: line 17 read	perecius II
Te			4 from th	e bottom read	the beginning	the middle	perceive: line
29	1		read for the 1	nills remain			
299	2	4	omit the second	l fome : line 25	CARREST MINISTER	ances	
298	3 3	2	for and and	when			
296	5	2	read alluvion	s; line 18 req	d of SATYAV	RATA	A STATE OF
				A PARTICULAR OF THE PARTICULAR	-		

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Page Line
          26 read (according - - procured,)
297
          In the note for Bombyx ? read the Bombax;
298
       9 read SAMI-DE'VI
802
      16 read according to the author of the Arabian Nights, 5
303
      23 read Caunahas
       3 read peninfula
304
       2 read (védi): line 24 read begin in that
300
      8 for who read: the latter
311
      19 read who in his old age refigned: line 21 read Jyápati
314
      17 - because Jupiter Triphylius, or Siva, with his trident (tri)
315
              refides there.
       6 - Sudras: line 7 Cshatriyas: line 24 primeval
216
      13 - whence
317
      19 - but there appears
322
       9 - fonetimes: line at for and read or
 327
      last line, read Swarn a bhumi
       5 and 11 read (Inlia)
-330
      15 read and Vidyad baras;
332
       5 - on the part of the Romans (negotiatores nostri), or to those who
 333
              came: line 14 for There read In it
           - Yamuna or Jumna: line antepenult: all these rivers, it is pretended;
 335
              fall immediately
          read Ballriana
 339
        2 enclose in a parenthesis (in the Bbagavata 1000 only).
 345
          In many fimilar inflances the reader will eafily fupply the parenthefis,
             which has been omitted at the prefs.
       Iast line read that it is
 346
       20 read with a thousand: line 23 with a hundred
 347
          read URANUS
 353
        2 omit there: line penult: for their read there
 354
```

Page Line

356 22 read hundreds of thousands

358 23 for bounding read abounding

362 3 read mountains

363 2 enclose within a parenthesis (called also Cabéras and Guhyas, and the same with the Cabiran tribes,)

for In numerous other inflances, whore remarks are introduced in the body of the quotations, the reader is requested to supply the parenthesis:

355 2 read morning

364 antepenult: read and the Jainas,

387 5 read " the fun is the foul

418 3 read two passages, both remarkable

429 17 for sentence read sentences

436 21 for appeared and was manifest read became celebrated and conspicuous

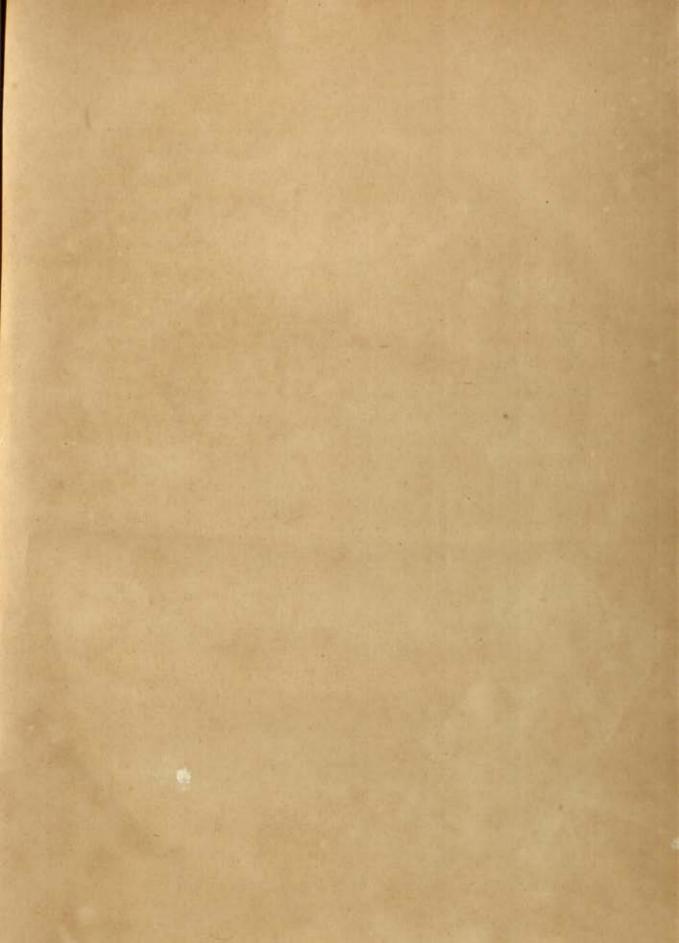
458 in the notes, line penult, read transcript

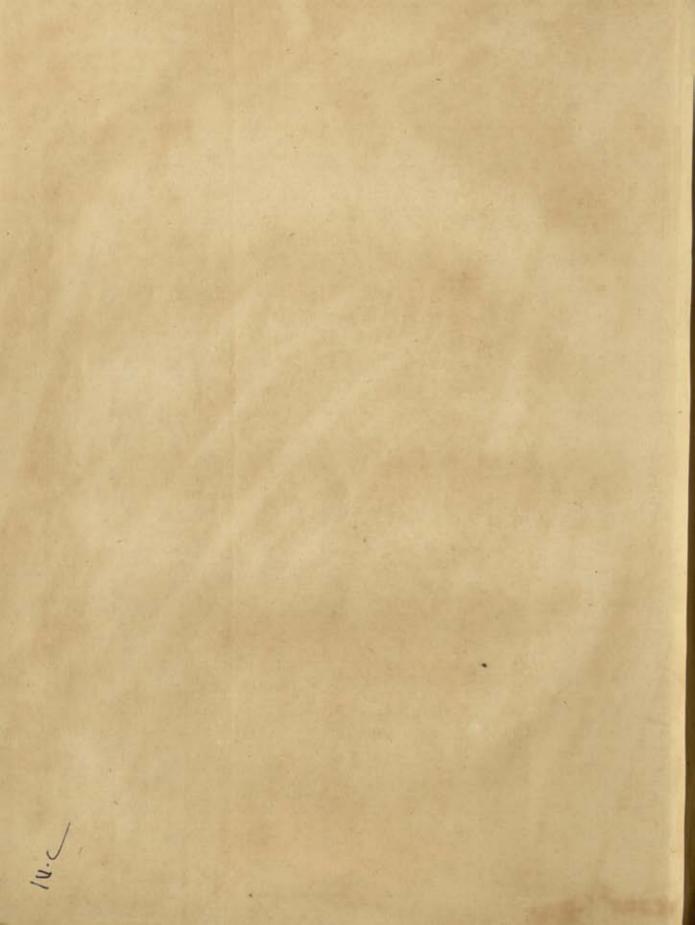
167 in the notes, line 3 from the bottom, read instructor

474 17 read have been generally introduced,

475 in the notes, line 5 from the bottom, for another read a







"A book that is shut is but a block"

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NEW DELHI.

Please help us to keep the book clean and moving.

5. 5. 148. N. DELHI.